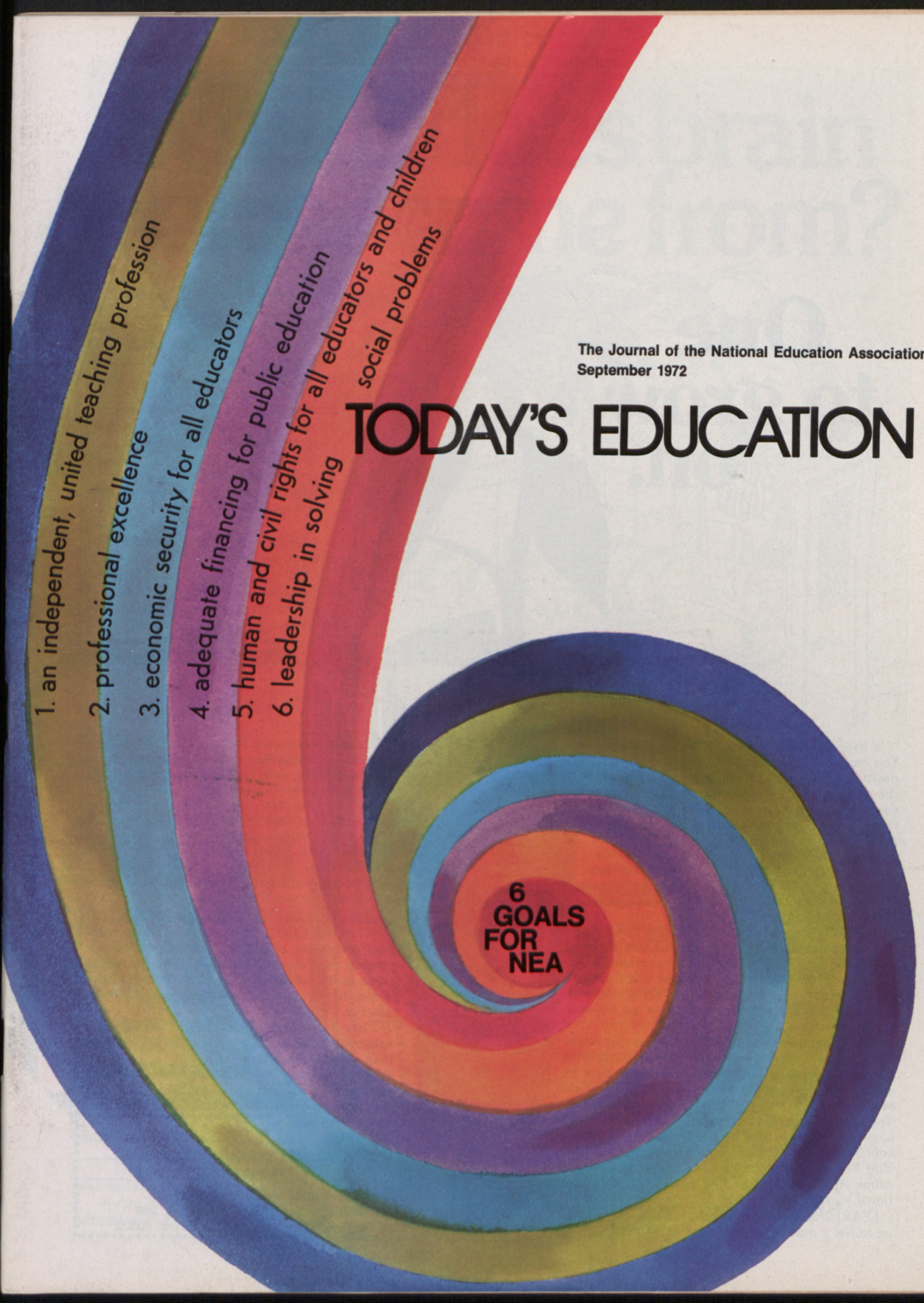
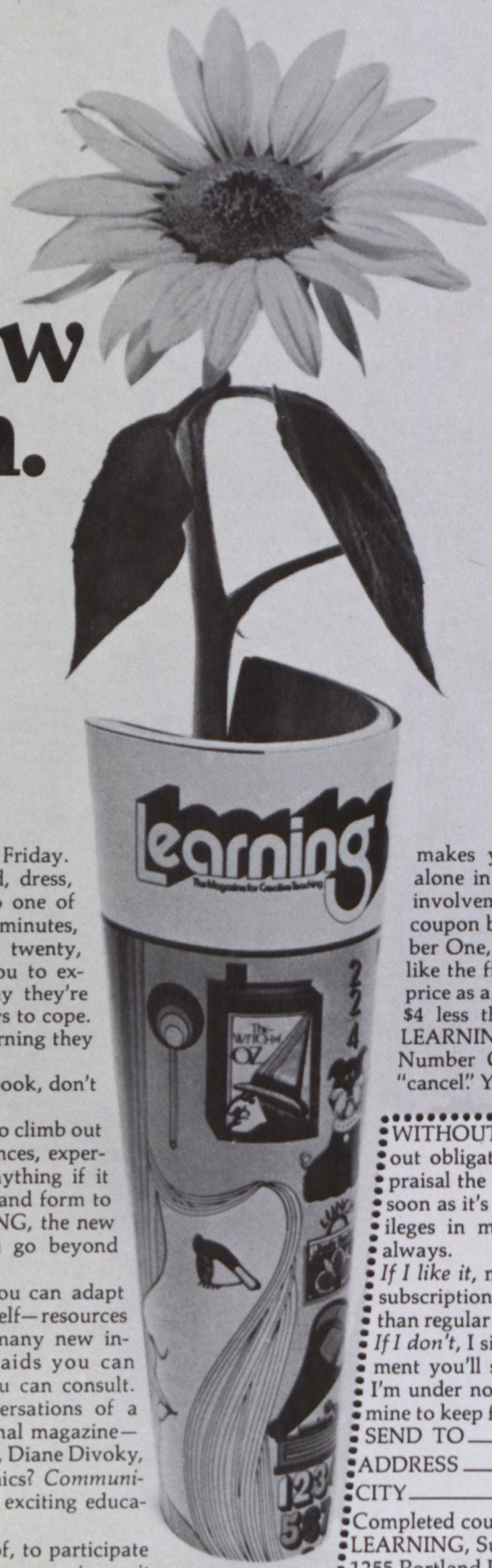
The Journal of the National Education Association
September 1972

TODAY'S EDUCATION


1. an independent, united teaching profession
2. professional excellence
3. economic security for all educators
4. adequate financing for public education
5. human and civil rights for all educators and children
6. leadership in solving social problems
6 GOALS FOR NEA

One to grow on.



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The editors of Saturday Review proudly announce a new monthly magazine devoted to Education.

All through your life, environmental influences are having a profound influence on your ability to think and cope.

Formal education plays an important part in this process, but clearly, all of the answers cannot be found in the classroom.

So any inquiry into learning patterns must go beyond the classroom.

In addition, basic education is undergoing significant change at all levels

The information explosion is partly responsible.

New technology plays its part. And educators are learning more about how people learn, and what they retain.

But the major change occurring in education today may be due to the fact that teaching methods which worked in America during the industrial revolution and the immigrant waves will not be relevant in the 21st Century.

Today, we are faced with education in the urban ghetto.

Retraining of workers who have been automated out of jobs. Overcrowded, underfinanced school systems. Continuing education beyond college, for people who need it, and for people who enjoy it.

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It explores the world of learning, and raises fundamental questions about the existing educational system, and the new directions education might take.

It has several editorial departments: Previews and Reviews, Life and Learning, Early Childhood, The Schools, Colleges and Universities, and People and Ideas.

It examines how we learn, where we learn, and what we learn, and relates it to the new requirements of our society.

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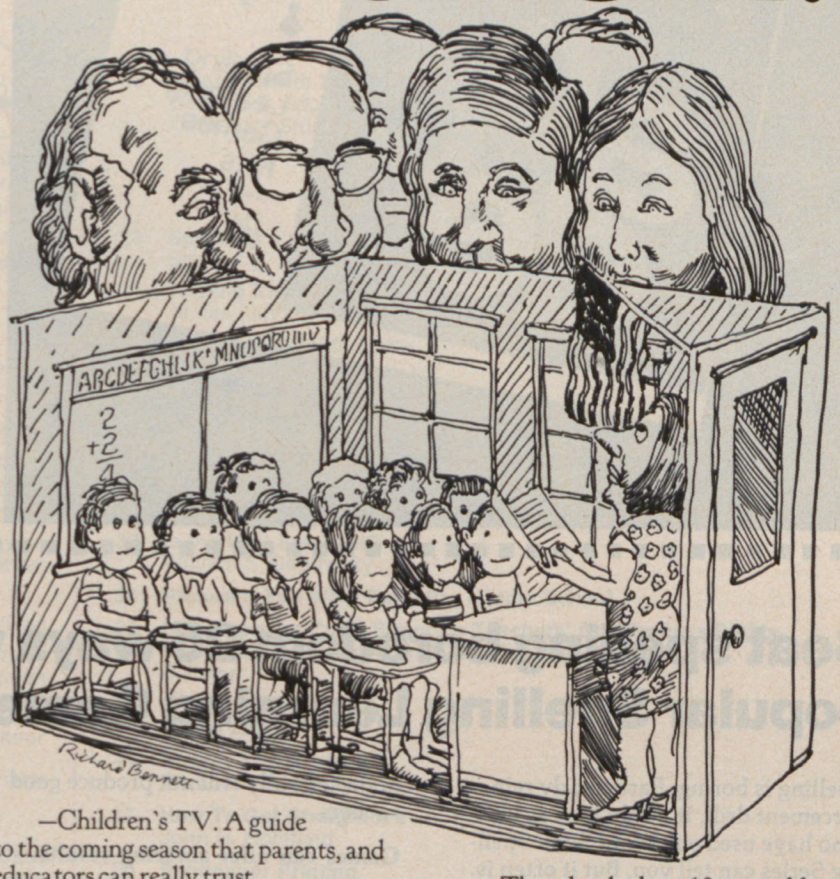
It is intensely readable, and exciting.

Here are some of the things you will read about in Education:

—Are "educational toys" really educational? Are they really necessary?



—Children's TV. A guide to the coming season that parents, and educators can really trust.

—The "blue-collar" colleges: as open admissions becomes policy in many colleges, what experience from the past will be significant?

—Do those "crash courses" for the College Boards really help?

—A head-start on Head Start: education begins in the home.

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—The school where 10-year-olds learn to master computers.

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The importance of variety

The Winnetka tests showed what skilled spelling teachers had long known intuitively, that variety is the ingredient that makes good spellers who remain good spellers. Without variety good spellers often dropped in achievement.

Programs must be educationally sound

Of course variety alone isn't the answer. Both programs and supplementary materials must be educationally sound. An educationally weak program certainly will not produce good spellers.

Games can offer amazing results

Teachers know instinctively that boring classroom tasks like rote drill of spelling principles and patterns work best when offered with a *sweetener.* Games are probably the best of the sweeteners. And they have some other advantages. Not only are they useful with small groups, they also have remedial and diagnostic uses.

But games must be fun

For games to be effective in reinforcing spelling patterns and principles, they must first be fun to play. That's been the trouble with many educational games. They were boring, pedantic, or alarmingly naive.

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See for yourself! Our *Spelling Learning Games Kits* have all kinds of games, rummy games, anagram games, board games, and bingo games. Plenty of variety there. And there are 25 different games. These 25 games are arranged in graded kits of 5 games each. Each kit is suggested for use with a particular grade level. Each game reinforces a specific spelling pattern or principle.

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Packaged with each kit is a Teacher's Manual, a duplicate set of directions, and an Answer Check Sheet or a Spelling Dictionary for checking open-ended responses.

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The Journal of the National Education Association
September 1972, Volume 61, Number 6

TODAY'S EDUCATION

This Month's Cover: Six has been called the "magic age." It is also the magic number featured on this month's cover as a reminder of the six goals adopted by the Association's governing bodies to guide the NEA's increasingly effective activities. Free-lance artist Gloria Kamen created the colorful design.

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SPECIAL FEATURE

48 **Mental Health in the Classroom**
Bertram S. Brown, M.D.; Barbara Ellis Long; William C. Morse; Center for Studies of Child and Family Mental Health, NIMH

ARTICLES

23 **Speaking and Listening**
Stewart L. Tubbs and Gail A. Tubbs

24 **Turning Kids On**
James (Jay) M. Rogers, Jr.

26 **Types of Students I Like**
Esther McGowan

27 **Presenting President Barrett**

29 **Let's PACE the Nation!**
NEA Division of Government Relations

30 **What Prompted the Pyramid Project?**
Thomas M. Levin

32 **Is the Past Relevant?**
William S. Banowsky

34 **Picture If You Will: Farquhar Middle School**

37 **U.S. Supreme Court Supports Teachers' Due Process Rights**
DuShane Emergency Fund, NEA Teacher Rights Division

40 **The IQ Debate**
Lillian Zach

44 **Buying Term Papers**
Elizabeth Einsiedler

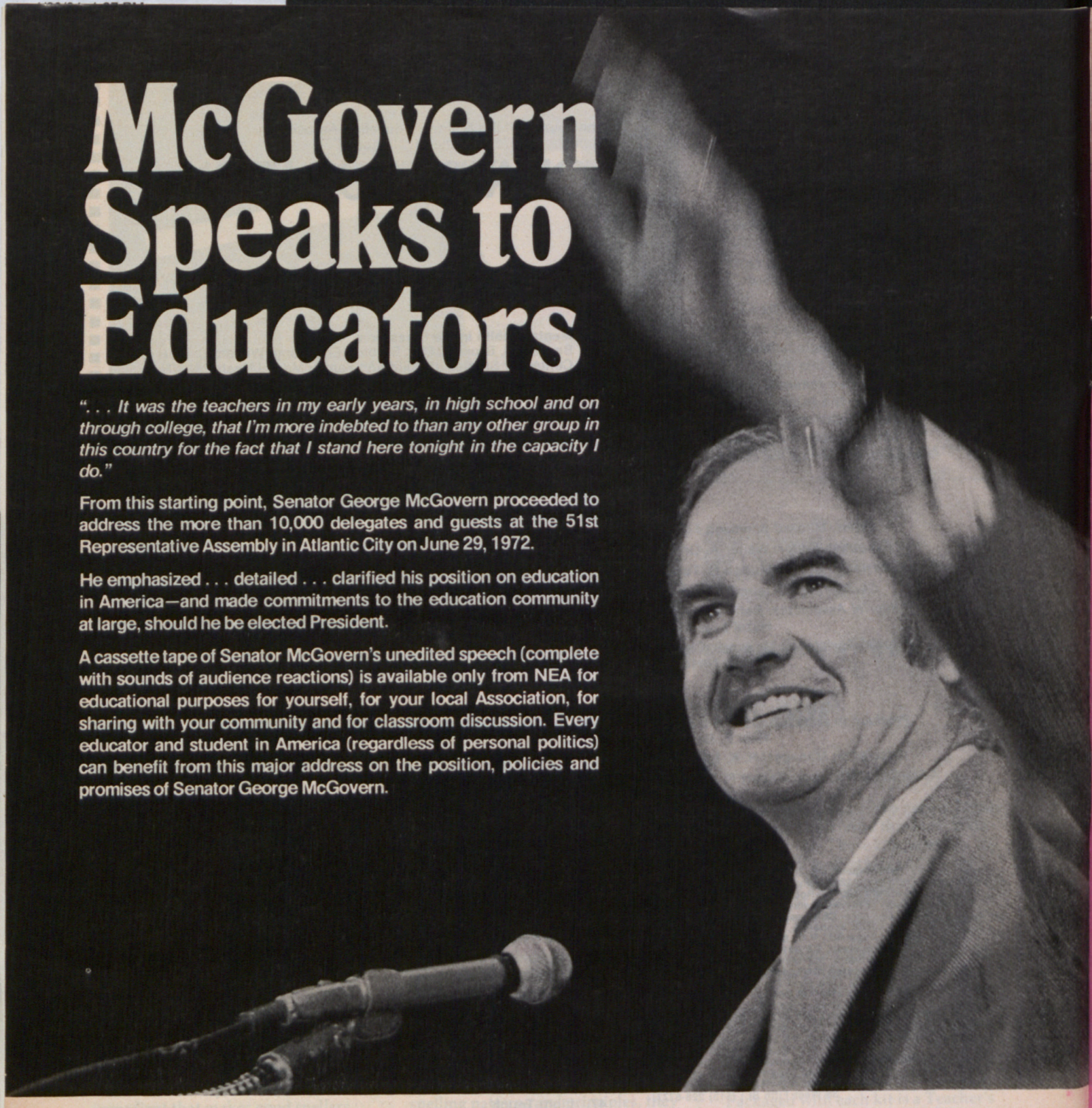
47 **How To Get Straight A's**
John H. Hollifield

56 **Sandpaper Printing**
Virginia Birchfield Walker

CONTINUING FEATURES

60 Classroom Incident
18 For the Beginning Teacher
68 For Your Information
70 Idea Exchange
39 Law and Teacher Rights
56 Let's Be Creative
47 Light Touch
22 Membership Poster
68 NEA-Sponsored Programs
71 New NEA Publications and Audiovisual Materials
5 News and Trends
72 Reader Service
32 Searching Mind
10 Teacher Opinion Poll
62 Youth Speaks
12 Zip Code 20036

McGovern Speaks to Educators



". . . It was the teachers in my early years, in high school and on through college, that I'm more indebted to than any other group in this country for the fact that I stand here tonight in the capacity I do."

From this starting point, Senator George McGovern proceeded to address the more than 10,000 delegates and guests at the 51st Representative Assembly in Atlantic City on June 29, 1972.

He emphasized . . . detailed . . . clarified his position on education in America—and made commitments to the education community at large, should he be elected President.

A cassette tape of Senator McGovern's unedited speech (complete with sounds of audience reactions) is available only from NEA for educational purposes for yourself, for your local Association, for sharing with your community and for classroom discussion. Every educator and student in America (regardless of personal politics) can benefit from this major address on the position, policies and promises of Senator George McGovern.

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News and Trends

Convention Adopts Con Con, Bans New Union Mergers

Delegates to NEA's 110th annual convention in Atlantic City, June 24-30, 1972, approved the proposed Constitutional Convention (Con Con) revision of the Association's structure and voted to ban mergers requiring affiliation with the AFL-CIO, except those already in effect or in process.

The delegates approved a new constitution and bylaws (subject to NEA membership ratification in November) that would create a 30-member governing board consisting of the three executive officers and 27 directors chosen regionally and at large by the Representative Assembly. Classroom teachers would have at least a majority and ethnic minorities at least 20 percent of the seats. The document, which would also permit top NEA officers to serve up to six years in one office, would provide NEA state and local affiliates with the option of including or excluding administrators as members.

While prohibiting future mergers requiring AFL-CIO affiliation, the delegates nevertheless voted that "the Association should be in a position to explore with other organizations any relationships that will promote the attainment of NEA goals and objectives." They called for support of a Confederation of American Public Employees (CAPE) and specifically invited teacher and other public employee unions to join it.

NEA Delegates Take New Stands, Amend Old Ones

NEA convention delegates adopted and/or amended positions on issues ranging from a moratorium on group standardized testing to a preparation period each day for all teachers, both of which positions they favored.

Among other convention actions were those calling for: legalizing teacher strikes and limiting strike-halting injunctions to those situations in which the public health or safety is endangered; organizing higher education (an aim the delegates made an NEA priority); and strengthening support of minority rights.

Also, NEA's first annual Friend of Education Award for a "significant contribution to the betterment of education" went to former President Lyndon B. Johnson.

Task Forces Report to NEA Convention

One NEA task force report to the convention called for a timetable for the end of corporal punishment in schools, and another one urged more teacher involvement in drug education programs. The NEA convention also heard the report of the Task Force on Compulsory Education, which urged "exploration of the promising possibility of alternate schools," while supporting continuation of compulsory education laws. (For more details on the NEA convention, see the September issue of the NEA Reporter.)

First Voucher Experiment Is Under Way in California

The nation's first experiment with educational vouchers begins this month in the Alum Rock School District in San Jose, California. Parents will select from among some 20 mini-schools, offering programs such as bilingual education or fine arts at six participating public schools. Each mini-

school will have an independent budget, determined by its ability to draw vouchers worth $680 each for elementary schoolchildren and $970 for seventh and eighth graders, plus an additional one-third for children in compensatory programs at each level.

The program departs from the original concept of educational vouchers by not including private and parochial schools and by being under the control of the local public school board instead of an independent voucher agency.

Court Strikes Down Discriminatory Use of NTE and GRE Exams

A federal appeals court affirmed in June 1972 a lower court ruling that use by a Mississippi school district of the National Teacher Examination (NTE) as a standard for hiring and firing "was unlawful under the equal protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment because it created a racial classification and it was not shown to have a manifest relation to job performance." In another case the same court had already struck down use of the Graduate Record Examination (GRE) as a basis for dismissing teachers.

Litigation in both cases has been supported by NEA's DuShane Emergency Fund, and NEA and the Mississippi Teachers Association were plaintiffs in both suits. (Both cases will be discussed in "The Law and Teacher Rights" column in the October Today's Education.)

Johns Hopkins To Admit High School Nongraduates

Johns Hopkins University has announced that it will admit students who have completed only 11 years of schooling or less if the students' academic qualifications are "above the average of successful Johns Hopkins undergraduates." University officials said the move was prompted in part because of the greater preparation and maturity of high school students today.

Nader Volunteers Making Consumer Report On U.S. Congress

Consumer crusader Ralph Nader has turned his efforts toward an unprecedented study of the United States Congress. More than 800 persons—most of them volunteers—are involved in the project in one way or another: conducting interviews, writing analyses and compiling detailed statistics on disclosures of financial support and campaign spending.

The first publication of the project will be 24-page profiles of individual incumbent representatives and senators. Scheduled for release October 1, these profiles will record some 90 key votes taken between 1962 and 1972. They will also include information on the members' performance in Congress, their committee votes, payroll records, foreign travels, and positions on Congressional reform. The profiles, which will be available by mail order at 75¢ each, are being written by journalists in an interesting and easy-to-read style. Orders may be sent, with payment, to Public Citizen, P.O. Box 19404, Washington, DC 20036.

In addition to the profiles, other publications forthcoming are a 2,000- to 3,000-page analysis of the Congressional process, including such topics as campaign financing, appropriations, Congressional monitoring of the executive branch, and a study of Congressional committees.

NEA Reporter Gives Association News

For news and trends in local, state, and national education associations, see current issues of the NEA Reporter. Members in some unified states receive Reporter news through joint NEA-state association newspapers.

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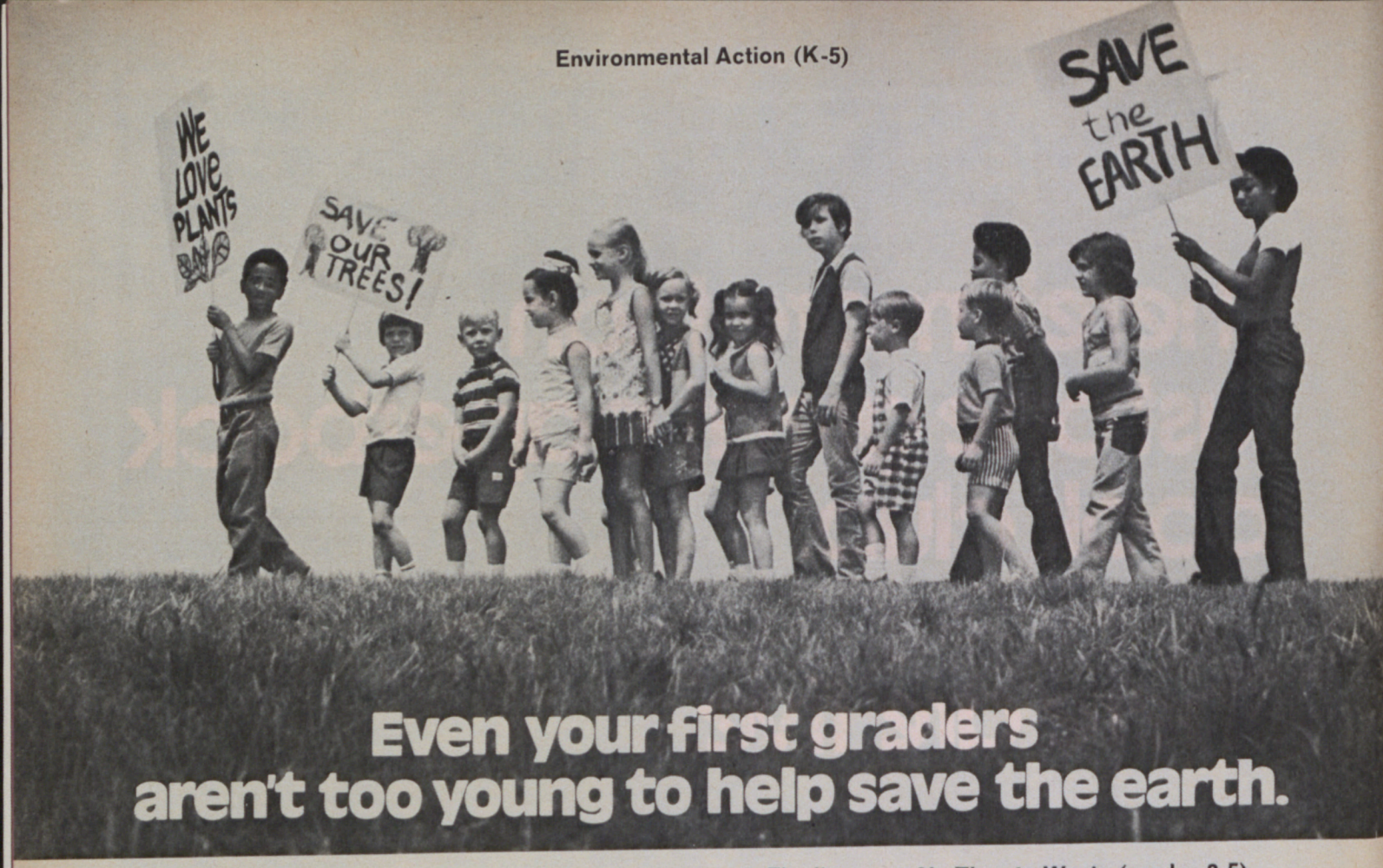
Environmental Action (K-5)



Even your first graders aren't too young to help save the earth.

The message is everywhere. Radio. TV. Even comic strips. And too often our noses and eyes tell us: The environment is in trouble. Children in the early grades are interested in their environment and its problems. *And they are not too young to do something about them.*

Save the Plants! Save the Animals! Save the Earth!

Litter. Dirty water. Smog. Plants and animals in danger! These are aspects of the global environmental crisis that even the youngest pupils can experience at first hand. A new multimedia kit created by C. Richard Hatch Associates shows how to use the school and the neighborhood to study nature conservation. And it describes projects that the K-2 group can carry out themselves to help the movement to save the earth.

Like the earlier *Environmental Action* kits, *No Time to Waste* (3-5), and *Recycling Resources* (7-9), *Save the Earth* balances activities for cognitive growth with a firm emphasis on values and attitude change. Pupils are first led to discover the basic needs of all living things and the importance of plants and animals to our own well-being—even survival. Finally, they are asked to consider their own responsibilities in the fight against environmental pollution.

Save the Earth combines first lessons in natural science with an introduction to good citizenship—environmental action at a here-and-now level K-2's can understand.

Environmental Action components:

Save the Earth (K-2)

★ 2 sound color Filmstrips on nature conservation
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★ reusable Giant Wall Mural—the heart of many art, science, and social studies activities
★ detailed Teacher's Manual, including suggested lesson plans, bibliography, supplementary activities, etc.
★ colorful pupil Handbooks (26 copies), each including seeds for classroom and home planting

Price: including 26 pupil Handbooks, only **$30.**, plus postage.

No Time to Waste (grades 3-5)

★ sound, color Filmstrip on pollution—and how to curb it
★ 12″ LP Record containing filmstrip narration and ecology songs for class discussion and enjoyment
★ Cycle of Life Card Game (four packs per kit)
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You can't teach too much phonics to a kid who is having trouble learning how to read.

Of course this statement is an oversimplification, in fact it's not absolutely correct. We know the dangers in overteaching phonics. But what we are talking about here is the common situation in which most of the reading class is getting along very well but a few students simply are failing to get it.

Diagnostic tests don't always help

Diagnostic tests aren't always helpful in uncovering the specific problems a student is having in learning to read. These tests work better with students who already have learned to read. But until then, there is a certain amount of groping, of searching to identify those reading skills that the child is still missing.

The magic of the teacher

This search by a skilled reading teacher is what outsiders, parents and such, refer to as the magic of teaching. For in this search the teacher draws on all her experience, her rapport with children, her intuitive understanding of how children learn to read in her efforts to determine the child's specific problem and to select the proper materials for helping the child solve this problem.

What about too much phonics?

Of course phonics can be overtaught, and with undesirable results. But between the phonics strand of the basal reading program and the point at which phonics instruction no longer is beneficial, there lies a vast area.

Why supplementary phonics then?

It is this vast area of need for supplementary phonics instruction that has accounted for the tremendous demand from teachers for our *New Phonics We Use* program and our *Phonics We Use Learning Games Kit.*

Amazing results with games

A variety of supplementary materials are useful with basal reading programs. Materials such as workbooks, tape cassettes, filmstrips, and games. Many teachers have had amazing results using our *Phonics Learning Games* to reinforce previously introduced phonics concepts. If you haven't used any of our games, you may think all educational games are boring or silly. Not true. Our games are fun! We know because kids really enjoy them.

The Phonics Learning Games Kit

The Phonics Learning Games Kit contains 10 separate games. Each game reinforces a specific phonics principle or set of principles. The kit contains two Teacher's Manuals and directions for each game.

Teacher's materials

The Teacher's Manual tells how to introduce all the the games, adapt games for special groups, and use games for preliminary or diagnostic activities.

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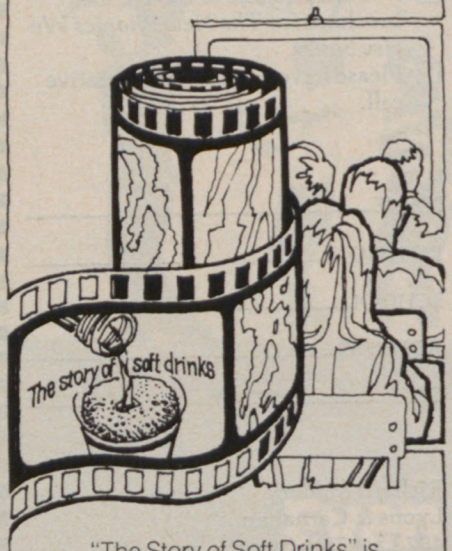
There's more to soft drinks than meets the tastebud.



"The Story of Soft Drinks" is now available as an entertaining 15 minute slide film. The film traces the history of soft drinks, the growth of the industry, the place of soft drinks in the balanced diet and much more with bright cartoons and colorful photographs. It's accompanied by two 33 1/3 rpm record sound tracks: one for automatic, the other for manual film advance. The story is designed to interest middle elementary school level children and older.

The film kit plus teacher's guide is available for $3.50. For your copy, fill in and mail the coupon below. Or write: National Soft Drink Association, 1101 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

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TEACHER OPINION POLL

Should Political Extremists Teach?

Should political extremists—Communists or Fascists—be allowed to teach in American public schools? Public school teachers themselves say "No."

More teachers oppose leftists than oppose rightists as teachers in the public schools, but most believe that extremists from either end of the political spectrum should be barred from teaching. Fewer teachers, however, would exclude extremists from teaching at the college level than from elementary or secondary school teaching, and slightly more would permit extremists to teach in secondary than in elementary schools.

In a recent Teacher Opinion Poll, the NEA Research Division asked a nationwide sample of teachers in public elementary and secondary schools this question:

> Do you think persons who publicly identify themselves with extremist groups (e.g. American Communist Party, American Nazi Party, John Birch Society) should be barred from teaching in publicly supported schools and colleges?

Respondents were asked whether they believed only extremists on the left, only those on the right, both, or neither should be barred from teaching and to indicate separately their opinions as regards teaching in elementary schools, secondary schools, and colleges or universities.

The table below shows the distribution of responses.

	Public elementary schools	Public secondary schools	Public colleges and universities
Only those identified with the extreme left should be barred	7.2%	6.9%	6.1%
Only those identified with the extreme right should be barred	1.6	1.5	1.3
Both groups should be barred	70.4	67.3	51.5
Neither group should be barred	20.8	24.3	41.1

Opinions of elementary and secondary teachers are closely similar, as are opinions of men and women. A larger proportion of teachers in the Southeast, however, than in other parts of the country believes that extremists should be barred from public school teaching. This geographical difference in the distribution of opinions is particularly pronounced in regard to teaching at the college level.

—NEA Research Division.

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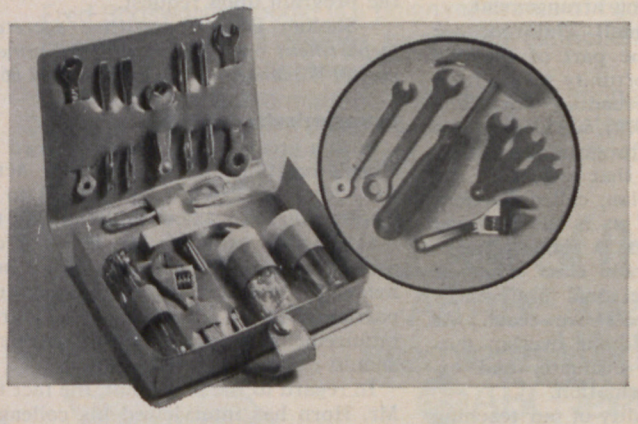

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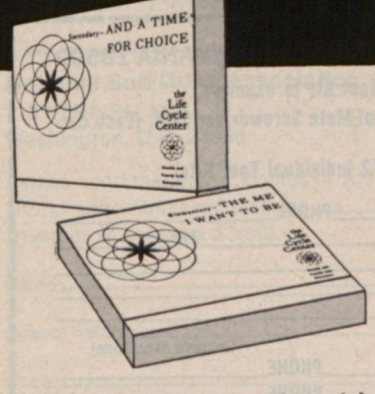

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Partnership Teaching

In response to "Paired Teaching—Why Not?" (May), we want to share information about our teaching arrangement.

As mothers of small children, we wanted to be at home part of the day but still have an opportunity to teach on a regular basis. After reading "Part-Time Teachers" (January 1970), we worked out a plan based on pilot programs in Massachusetts described in that article.

In our particular plan, called Partnership Teaching, one of us is the morning teacher and the other is the afternoon teacher of a third grade class. Time of day and our own personal preferences determine the subjects we teach. At noon, we have a half-hour overlap during which we plan, evaluate, and exchange pertinent information.

We feel that the quality of our teaching is improved because we have more time to prepare for fewer subject areas. The children also benefit from working with two different personalities and enjoy having a "fresh" teacher for the afternoon.

Our salary is a percentage of our individual placement on the schedule—not strictly fifty-fifty, because our morning session is slightly longer than the afternoon one. We substitute for each other at regular substitute rates. Our district has extended us full fringe benefits.

We feel our experiment has succeeded because the two of us are compatible; we have had previous teaching experience at our school and grade level; and administrators, other faculty members, parents, and children have had positive attitudes about our arrangement.

—Margaret Lemoine *and* Elizabeth Toribio, *Hillcrest Elementary School, North Bend, Oregon.*

Adopting Grandparents

I noted with great satisfaction "Adopting Grandparents" (April). For many years, the State of Connecticut Department on Aging has sponsored a program called Adopt-A-Grandparent.

In setting up a local program, a training phase and an action phase should be developed with a committee of young people and staff of a local or state agency on aging.

In the training phase of our program, high school upperclassmen who volunteer for the program go to four hour-and-a-half training sessions—one on physical characteristics of the elderly, with a physician; another on their social characteristics, with a social caseworker; a third on how to relate to the elderly, with a group worker; and the last on community resources, with a community organizer.

In the action phase, the committee of young people, working with staff of the local or state agency on aging, visits various homes and hospitals for the elderly to seek placement opportunities for volunteers in the program.

When the young people start working with the elderly, they visit and chat with them, take them out for dinner or to a movie, send them flowers, and do many other things to brighten their lives.

I will supply further information about the program upon request.

—Sholom Bloom, *executive secretary, Department on Aging, State of Connecticut, 90 Washington Street, Hartford 06115.*

Extracurricular Activities

With a great deal of interest I read Mr. Horn's reaction ("Extracurricular Activities—Right or Privilege?" in May) to my position on high school athletics. My two major points to which Mr. Horn objects are: (a) coaches should not have a summary power to exclude students from participating in athletics and (b) grade requirements for participation in athletics should not be implemented.

In regard to the first point, the fact that Mr. Horn has interviewed his colleagues and offers the results as support for his side of the argument is not impressive. That teachers and coaches agree on educational practices and beliefs does not guarantee that evil will not be perpetrated against students. His statements that the coaches he found were not willing to abrogate their right to make decisions in regard to team membership and that the approximately 100 classroom teachers whose opinions he solicited agreed with the coaches are testimony to authoritarian viewpoints that exist in high school athletic programs and lend support to my contention.

If a school is to operate democratically, a decision affecting the rights of students to pursue educational programs should rest with an agency that is not personally involved. Students should not be subjected to arbitrary acts of coaches and other teachers. Faculty, parents, administrators, and students ought to have input into policy affecting students.

It also appears to me that the matter of a grade requirement for participation in athletics cannot be defended because of its encroachment on democratic principles. Inherent in the principles of a democratic education is the right of students to participate in educational programs from which they derive benefit.

Shouldn't schools attempt to implement that principle? Assuredly, they should not impede it. To deny students who cannot succeed in academics the right to participate in athletics prohibits them from developing talents considered important by the American public. Establishment of academic criteria implies that the most important outcomes of educa-

(*Continued on page* 14)

ABC After School Specials ...a new kind of children's television series

On October 4—with the premiere of "Last of the Curlews"—ABC Television will inaugurate a series of monthly, hour-long specials prepared in consultation with the Bank Street College of Education.

Each special will present subject matter of interest to elementary and junior high school students. The primary emphasis will be on entertainment, but there will be many built-in opportunities for classroom involvement and home study.

"Last of the Curlews," an animated adaptation of Fred Bodsworth's book, is a poignant drama of two Eskimo Curlews, a species faced with extinction through man's carelessness.

In addition to the main ecological theme, young viewers will also learn about nesting and migratory habits of birds; the laws of flight; and the effects of weather on migration.

Other programs in this series of ABC After School Specials are: "Follow the North Star," the story of a Northern boy who risks his life to free a young slave; "Magical Mystery Trip," an amazing, animated journey through the human body; and "William," which stars Sir John Gielgud in an introduction to Shakespeare.

All will be presented in a late afternoon time period on the first Wednesday of every month.

With the fall migratory season in progress in October, "Last of the Curlews" offers a unique opportunity for you to plan related in-class activities and to share with your students the magnificent adventure of the "Last of the Curlews."

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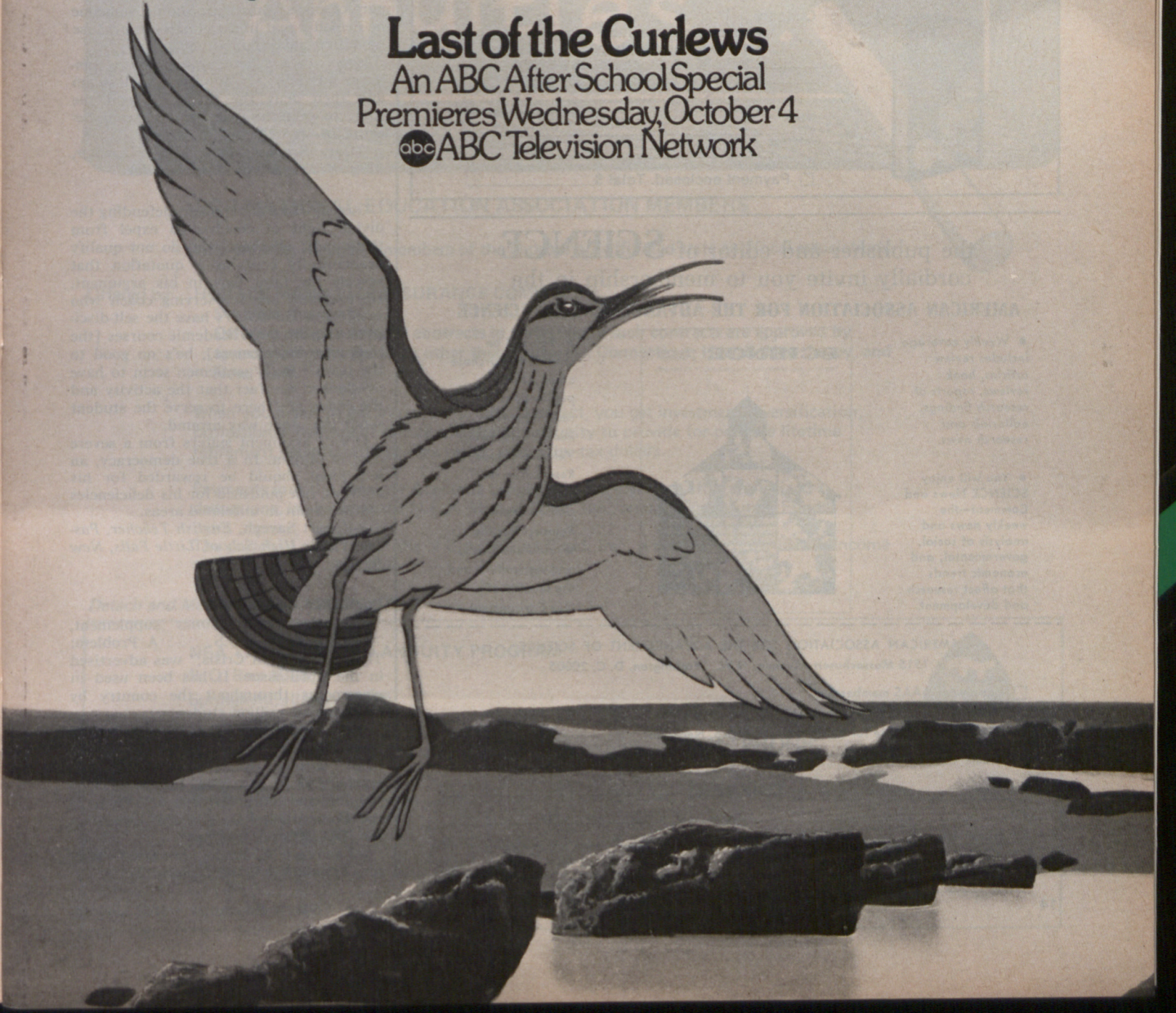

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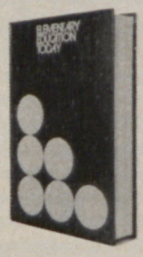

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(*Continued from page* 12)

tion are academic in nature. There are benefits in the schools other than cognitive ones.

Finally, a lack of interest in academics should not be resolved by holding participation in the athletic program as a motivational ax over students' heads. A more positive approach would be to locate the problems in academic programs and try to correct them.

—Larry J. Weber, *associate professor of education, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg.*

Horn is correct when he maintains there should be some standards for extracurricular participation. However, the standards should be based on student behavior, desire, and ability and not on a grade point average. While there is an occasional student goof-off, most students with the self-discipline for sports will master academic areas as well. Perhaps Mr. Horn forgets that self-discipline comes from within. In today's society, the extracurricular areas are an important part of one's education. Should someone be denied a seat in the classroom because he didn't make the football team?

How can a school system ask a taxpayer to help pay for a football team and then deny the taxpayer's son the right to even try out for the team because of limited mental ability?

—Gary Breckrenridge, *Title I teacher, Ridge-Brook School, Parma, Ohio.*

Gunnar Horn's statement defending the divine right of coaches to expel from their midst all those who do not qualify academically contains a quotation that reveals the fatal flaw in his argument. Horn quotes one self-serving coach who says, "If a kid doesn't have the self-discipline to pass three academic courses [the Nebraska requirement], he's no good to the team." Both gentlemen seem to have overlooked the fact that the activity and the coach are there to serve the student —not the other way around.

Horn's argument suffers from a severe case of elitism. In a true democracy, an individual should be rewarded for his abilities, not punished for his deficiencies —at least not in unrelated areas.

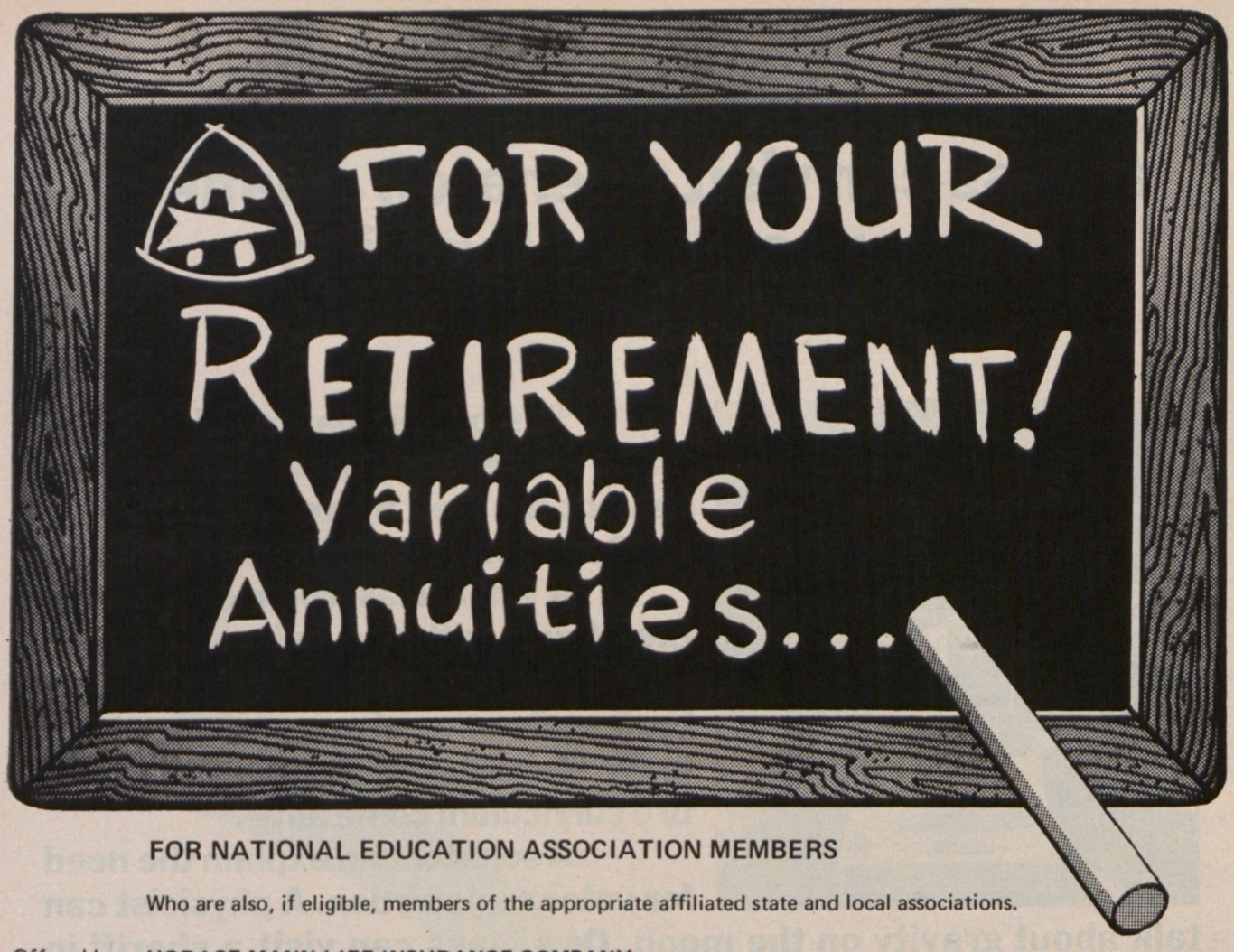
—Robert Sayegh, *English Teacher, Passaic Valley High School, Little Falls, New Jersey.*

Population Supplement

The *New York Times* supplement, "Population: The U.S. . . . A Problem; The World . . . A Crisis," was advertised in the April issue. It has been used in classrooms throughout the country by more than 2 million students.

The Population Crisis Committee is again offering single copies of the supplement, with a teacher's guide, free to teachers (2 to 10 copies, 15¢ each; 11 to 100, 10¢; and more than 100, 8¢). Write to the Committee, P.O. Box 6585, Washington, DC 20009.

—Lawrence R. Kegan, *executive director, Population Crisis Committee.*



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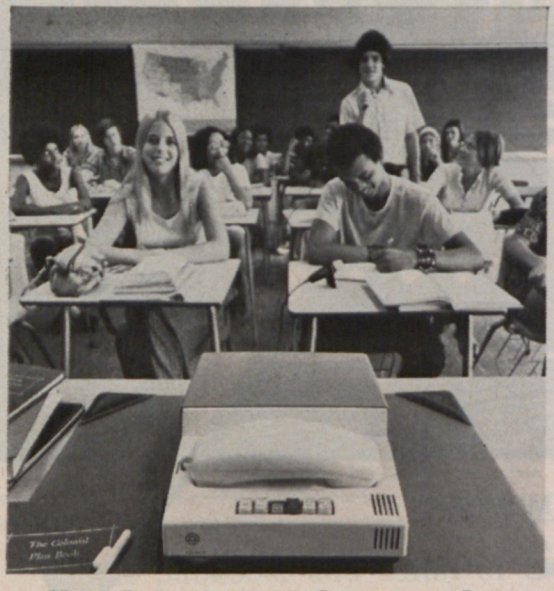

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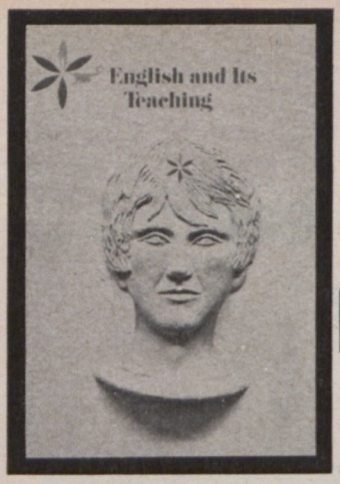

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FOR THE BEGINNING TEACHER: TECHNIQUES FOR LEADING A GROUP DISCUSSION

□ **The teacher's function in a class**room discussion is to help students realize their fullest potentialities in the thinking process. The teacher must remember, however, that the discussion belongs to the group. Neither he nor any individual student should exploit the discussion for his own ends at the expense of the group, no matter how worthy the goal.

As group leader, the teacher needs to use a variety of techniques, such as:

- Write on the board the question to be discussed and call attention to its wording when the discussion threatens to wander.
- Phrase questions so that a discussing answer, rather than a Yes or No answer, is required. (The teacher may, however, use *Yes* or *No* questions to draw timid persons into the discussion.) *Why* and *How* questions tend to bring out discussion better than do *What, When,* or *Where* questions. The last three often stifle discussion because the answer may seem to settle the problem.
- Phrase questions impartially, so that they are not leading questions.
- Never answer questions; rather refer them to a member of the group.
- If no one offers to answer a question, rephrase it.
- Sometimes refer a question to the whole group, asking for a volunteer response.
- Sometimes refer a question to a group member who has not taken an active part—but only if there is good reason to believe he can contribute.
- Follow a participant's comment by two or three questions growing out of it.
- Stop occasionally in the course of discussion to take stock and summarize what has been said.
- In summarizing, give credit to the individuals who contribute major points and opinions.
- Ask another participant, perhaps a reticent one, to summarize.
- Accept each contribution as worthy of thought.
- If a contribution is off the main point, note it and promise to return to it later.
- If a contribution seems irrelevant, ask the contributor to explain his point a bit further, to clarify its relation to the topic at hand.
- Use the board to list the arguments on different sides of the question, the advantages and disadvantages of a course of action, the probable results of a course of action.

—Ruth E. Litchen, deceased; formerly with the *Department of Education, University of Kansas, Lawrence. Ruth Litchen was the author of* "How To Use Group Discussion," *No. 6 in the* How To Do It *series of the National Council for the Social Studies (an NEA national affiliate).*

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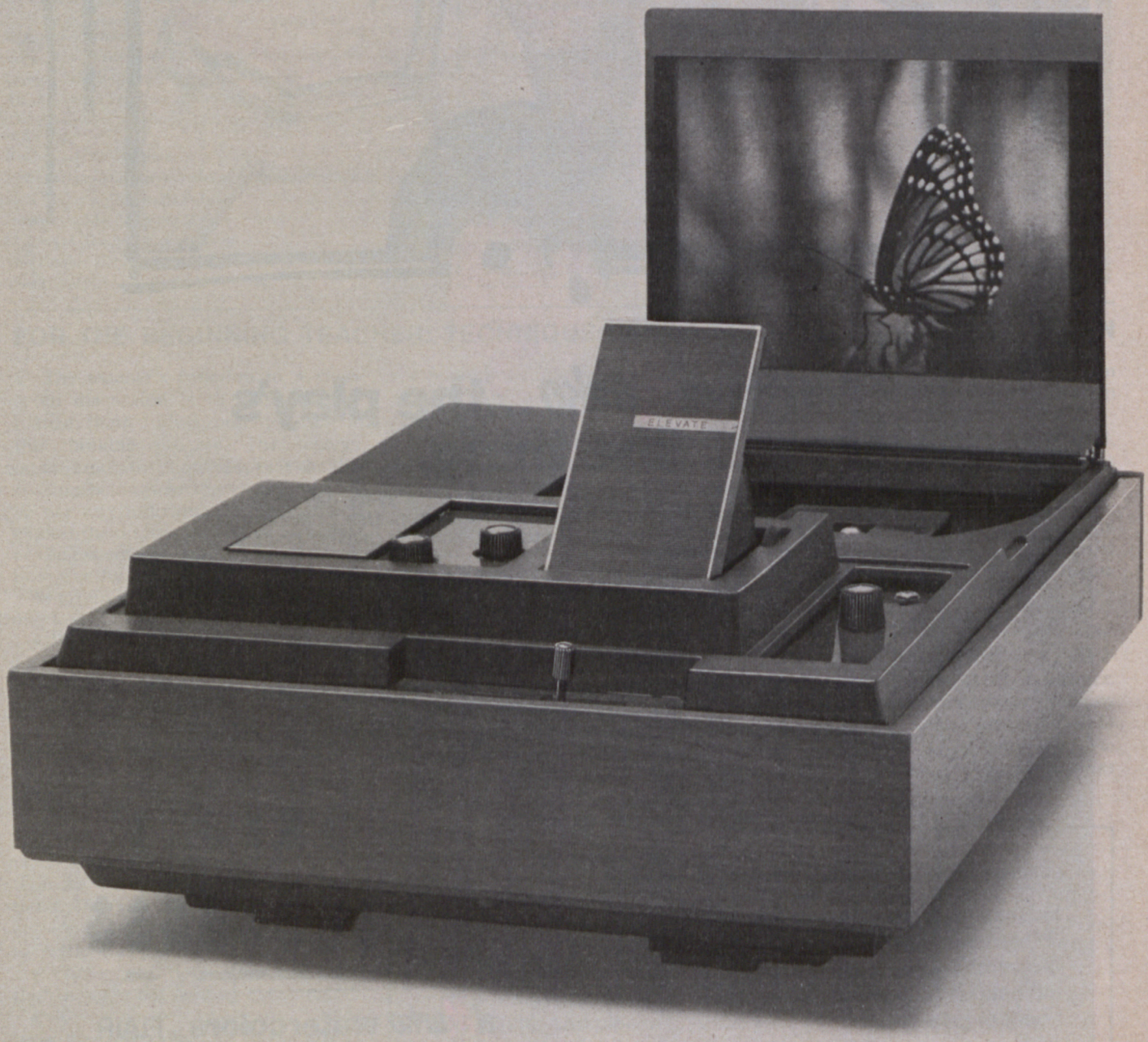

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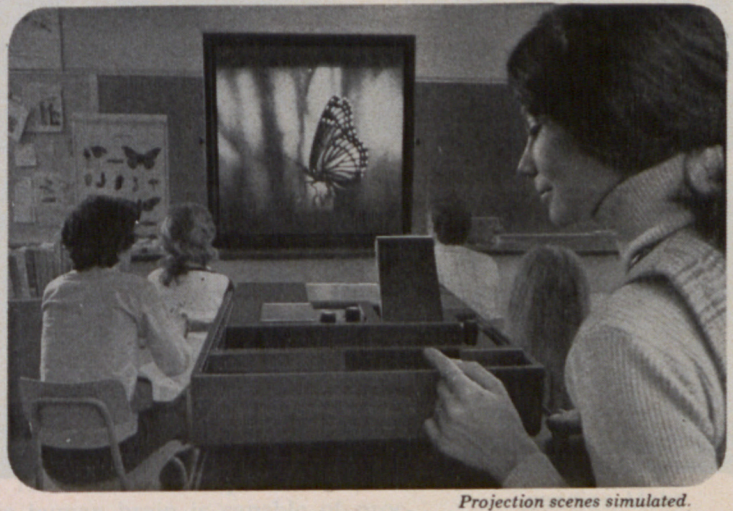

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Speaking and Listening

☐ **Studies show that of the four** modes of communicating (reading, writing, speaking, and listening), people spend 75 percent of a typical day either speaking or listening. However, public school curriculums and text materials with which we are familiar do not contain systematic programs of self-development to enable students to improve communication.

A discussion of a few common communications problems and their solutions may offer some guidelines for tackling some everyday classroom situations. First, the problems:

- In classroom discussion, students (and teachers) do not always make their points concisely. It is a rather common tendency for a speaker to talk longer than necessary to get his point across, leading to a stream-of-consciousness style of talking in which even the speaker forgets the points he was trying to make. Small wonder the listener stops paying attention.
- Some students engage in monologues rather than dialogues. This problem is closely related to the first one in that the communication is self-centered rather than other-centered.
- Many listeners do not pay attention to the statements of others. The average person has a speaking rate of 125 to 175 words per minute, but the human brain is capable of processing several times that amount of information. The result is that the listener's mind wanders because he has spare time available.

What can be done about these problems?

- First, students must identify their communications shortcomings. The teacher can help students recognize these as they occur in the classroom.
- Second, constructive suggestions from the teacher and classmates can help a student modify his communications behavior. For example, one student continually broke off in the middle of a statement to move on to a new thought. To help her overcome this habit, her teacher would intervene, "Laurie, you were saying that Jack was doing something. What was he doing?"

At first it may be difficult to establish an atmosphere in which the teacher and student can give each other this type of feedback, but once the ice is broken, constructive comments on improving communication become accepted as part of class procedure.

- Teams of two students can keep track of their communications problems and give gentle reminders to each other when problems appear. In one class, two students on a team had the annoying habit of repeating a particular phrase or word in almost every sentence. One kept saying, *y'know*, and the other, *like*. They set up a system in which each had to give his teammate a plastic chip every time he used the repetitive phrase or word. At the end of each month the student with the most chips received a small prize. By the end of two months, both had almost overcome this problem.
- The teacher can increase students' motivation to listen by asking each one to restate what a classmate has said (to the speaker's satisfaction) before making his own point. This technique also encourages the speaker who is verbose to be more concise so that his classmates are better able to understand him and restate what he has said.

—**Stewart L. Tubbs,** *associate professor of communication, General Motors Institute, Flint, Michigan, and* **Gail A. Tubbs,** *remedial reading teacher, Coolidge Community School, Flint.*

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turning kids ON

JAMES (JAY) M. ROGERS, JR., *teacher of American history and black studies, Durham (North Carolina) High School.*

□ **When I began teaching, everyone was throwing** darts at public education. It was the time of desegregation, of sit-downs, of riots. But I had one thing working for me: I'd never been a classroom teacher before, so when I walked into my newly desegregated classroom, I couldn't compare that class with an all-black *or* an all-white class. I met them all as pupils.

During the 1970-71 school year when the Durham City Schools were first fully desegregated, I asked my class to complete one of two statements:

1. I have done all that I could this year to facilitate school desegregation because. . . .

2. I have not done all that I could to facilitate school desegregation because. . . .

Following are some of the responses:

Terri wrote in the negative because "I just knew that white people would cut your throat and think nothing of it. I like white people, but one thing about me, I don't like to show it."

Sandy said, "If God had meant for all people to be the same then He would have made all of us the same color!"

Elizabeth wrote, "To be truthful, I came to this school with the intention of not doing anything. But when I saw how some whites got along with some blacks and were trying to adjust to the situation, I tried it too and enjoyed it."

Carolyn said, "I don't like white people, and I don't think we should be together. If they hate us, why not hate them? But I am not going to teach my child to hate. I don't want her to be like me."

Pat wrote, "My biggest problem I guess is my parents' prejudice."

These and other statements revealed to me one reason why there was lack of interest in school affairs and gave me a beginning point. We talked about the feelings expressed in these statements and tried to reach some truths so we could respect each other more. (It seems, by the way, that the more a teacher is able to gain his students' respect, the more willing they are to perform.) This clarification reduced the tension and enabled us to go about the business of gaining academic and social growth. Getting a problem into the open can often break the restraints that prevent positive behavior.

Motivating kids to exert themselves academically is one of the pressing issues in public school education. Students complain of irrelevant curriculums and couple this complaint with negative statements about the teacher who fears his students, the teacher who merely baby-sits, the teacher who reads daily from the textbook and refuses to allow questions, the teacher who represses discussion of controversial topics, the teacher who lowers students' grades to punish them for disagreeing with or questioning him, the teacher who assigns loads of written work but never evaluates it, the teacher who never seems to be excited about his subject matter, and the teacher who does not keep abreast of current developments in his field or in the world.

For their part, a good many teachers may feel that the blame for school failure lies with the student (or with his parents). But, instead of spending time passing the buck, I believe that we, as public school educators, must continue our search for new "alarm clocks" to wake up student brains and combat apathy in the classroom.

How can a teacher do this? First, he can invite students to discuss what turns them off about school and what changes they would like to see. When we tried this at Durham High, some suggestions made by students and teachers included: mini courses; a code of conduct formulated and enforced by those affected; fairness in dealing with code breakers regardless of who they might be; more individualized instruction; free time for teachers to do academic or personal counseling; more library books on contemporary issues; a paperback reading room; a clearly spelled out chain-of-command for students to follow; seminars; better planned assemblies; clerical help for teachers; student evaluation of teachers; more school pride. Many of these suggestions are being adopted.

I have found that communicating with the students is very important. In my opinion, what we have today is not so much a generation gap as a communication gap—an unwillingness to listen. We tend to turn off everything young people have to say, which is unfortunate. Today's students are older, not in years but in experience, and they have a lot to tell us if we listen.

We needn't take everything they say as truth. Truth, after all, is hard to find. Certainly, we have to let students know that what we think is important, also. We should not abandon our values or goals. But we must find a way to mesh our goals with theirs. Otherwise we have lost our students.

I teach social studies—history, to be exact—and black studies. I take the viewpoint that history is a record of everything that man has ever done or thought. My classroom, therefore, has no limits, because I believe we can discuss anything. As long as my students can handle a topic maturely, we will talk about it.

In dealing with young people, we teachers have to be resilient. We can't afford to be rigid. We need to listen, evaluate, and make classroom use of what our students say. For example, if my students are interested in rock and wish to bring in a rock record and show how music has changed through the ages, I allow it. One student discussed "Beatlemania" and the effect that rock has had on the country as a whole. Then I shared my concept of its effect in the drug culture.

Mr. Rogers is the 1972 National Teacher of the Year. This award is sponsored by *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, the Council of Chief State School Officers, and *Ladies' Home Journal*.

In my experience, home visits can make students come alive. At the beginning of the school year, I take it upon myself to visit my students' parents. I find that once I have met them it is much easier to deal with the student.

If John misbehaves in the classroom and I don't know his parents, he can say, "OK, call them. They won't do anything to me. They don't care, and I don't care what you do."

On the other hand, John is not so likely to say this if he knows that I have talked with his parents and that they have probably said, "Let us know if our John cuts up in class, because we want to work with you."

Not all parents are cooperative, of course. Some of them aren't interested—not because they don't care about their children but because they have so many other worries. So when a child from such a family comes to school and displays a social problem, I know it isn't because he enjoys being the problem child but because he needs additional help; he needs someone to take an interest in him.

Nevertheless, some uninterested parents do develop an interest when they feel that the teacher cares about their child's growth, not out of a sense of duty but because of genuine concern.

Becoming involved with students in extracurricular activities seems to be one of the best ways of bridging the communication gap. From the start, I decided that the needs of my students would come before anything else in school. I find it almost impossible ever to say No to them. Of course, if they said, "All right, Rogers, we want the day off," the answer would be No. But if they ask me to supervise an activity, to take over a club, to talk over a problem, to give them some extra help, I can't say No. For anything valid, any real need, I give them my time—even if I have to cancel a personal activity.

How does one turn students on? By being genuinely, enthusiastically interested in them. By preparing lessons that excite their imagination. By making the class format flexible. By being honest and fair. By showing how your course will help them cope with today.

And by showing that you are human and that you realize they are human, too. □

TYPES OF STUDENTS I LIKE

□ **Generally my students ask early in a school year** "Which students do you like best—boys or girls?" With purposeful duplicity my answer is "Well, I like boys best because I have two sons of my own, and I like girls best because I have no daughters."

I hesitate to classify or pigeonhole people, but there are students whose characteristics of mind and personality make them notably attractive to me.

I like the sober student who looks mature, gazes intently at me during an explanation of factoring, seems always to have the correct answer, but whose basic reader enfolds a comic book at silent reading time.

I equally appreciate the student whose wholehearted enjoyment of every distraction is infectious and insures his popularity with classmates but whose jokes and pranks are likely to run spelling time into science time before I realize it.

That inimitable creature, the creative student, is a likeable type, too. With a boom and a zoom, he tries anything and everything at once, paints upon his face a mustache in some horrible ink that won't wash off and spatters his pants with papier mâché.

Equally likeable is the cautious student who begins spelling by doggedly asking about pencil or ink, arithmetic by reminding me that we skipped three pages last month, and science by letting me know that dissecting the frog might make students sick, but who, while assuring me that *he* is careful enough to carry orange wax, spills about a quart of it on the floor during a candle-making project.

I like the bright student who does not mind asking me questions he has faithfully looked up the answers to and wonders if I know, who earnestly researches his reports, and who knows the dexter and sinister sides of a coat of arms but cannot tell a cabbage from a head of lettuce.

I like just as well the slow student who answers hesitantly and bears the rudeness of quicker minds with dignity; who waits patiently at the close of each day for a pat or word that says from me to him "well done" and accepts with simplicity simple love.

I like the bookworm who looks up from his current tome with dream-filled eyes, but who knows what an estuary is and when it was we saw the puff-adder on the nature trail; who listens to a description of the sonnet form and stops to write one "just to see." I like the sportsman who can't do long division, but who knows every batting average important enough to ask about and who can be relied on to win the intraclass world series in the spring.

And so I say sincerely that I like boys and girls best —the sober, the merry, the creative, the cautious, the bright, the slow, the bookworm, and the sportsman.

—**Esther McGowan,** *sixth grade teacher, Meramec Heights Elementary School, Arnold, Missouri.*

Presenting President Barrett

"Political involvement and improvement of instruction—these are my co-first priorities. They march side by side," says new NEA President Catharine Barrett.

□ **"I am calling on all educators** worthy of the name to come together as an independent, unified, national group—a group within which personal, political, group, or other comparable ambitions are set aside as we move to ensure for the youth of this nation the kind of education each wants and is capable of accepting."

This is the charge issued by Catharine Barrett on assuming office as the 1972-73 president of the National Education Association at the NEA meeting in Atlantic City last June. Mrs. Barrett intends to make the improvement of instruction and the strengthening of NEA's political stance two major thrusts during her incumbency in this office. (She says that political strength does not interest her as an end in itself but, rather, as the only means of achieving the quality of education to which our young people are entitled.)

During her many years as an inner-city classroom teacher in Syracuse, New York, and as a dynamic officeholder in local, state, and national education associations, Mrs. Barrett has been an outspoken advocate of educational reform. Always the realist, she believes that such reform—and, indeed, the success of America's public schools—depends on effective political action, on making teachers "the strongest power brokers in the nation."

She asserts proudly that NEA has developed "a tough, sophisticated political action plan in which every member has a part to play." As president-elect, she promoted the idea of independent political action groups of teachers "to get adequate consideration for education not only on the local level, but also in state governments and in the Congress and the White House itself." The formation in June 1972 of NEA-PAC, NEA's first political action committee on a national level, transformed her hopes and ideas into reality. Says President Barrett, "Candidates for federal elective office are now aware of teacher power. We are being asked for support by many candidates—incumbent and challenger alike. No

longer are we a political liability, but rather a political asset.

"NEA-PAC is teachers. NEA-PAC is an organization that will serve notice on candidates for office and political leaders that teachers countrywide have entered the political arena as contenders with whom they must reckon. NEA-PAC is made up of the best political people in the country, organized through our great state PAC's, and *now* is the time to make NEA-PAC the total political force it can and must be. To accomplish this, it must be adequately funded.

"If we added only a $1 NEA-PAC voluntary contribution to the existing NEA dues structure, teacher power would have $2.5 million for each federal election year. Put this money power with our people power, and we would not only be competitive with any existing political force, but we would be the greatest of political forces."

President Barrett (and the NEA) believes that changes in school support structures are long overdue. She points out that there are not only variations in ability to pay for education within a state but that there is a 3-to-1 variation among states in average funding levels. She says, "This kind of differential defrauds students and imposes hardship on teachers. Although money is not an exact equivalent of the quality of education a district provides, gaps like this mean that grievous inequities cannot be avoided, no matter how great the dedication and imagination of the teachers in the woefully underfinanced schools.

"Because of the *Serrano* decision and others like it, it follows that methods of paying for education will at last be redesigned. But simplistic solutions will increase inequities, not eradicate them. To assume that every child must have an equal number of dollars spent on his education each year is to make a dangerous mistake. Some children cost more to educate because regular basic programs aren't suitable for them. Then, too, education costs more in some places. Costs of school plants and costs of living for school staffs are higher, for example, in the cities than in rural areas.

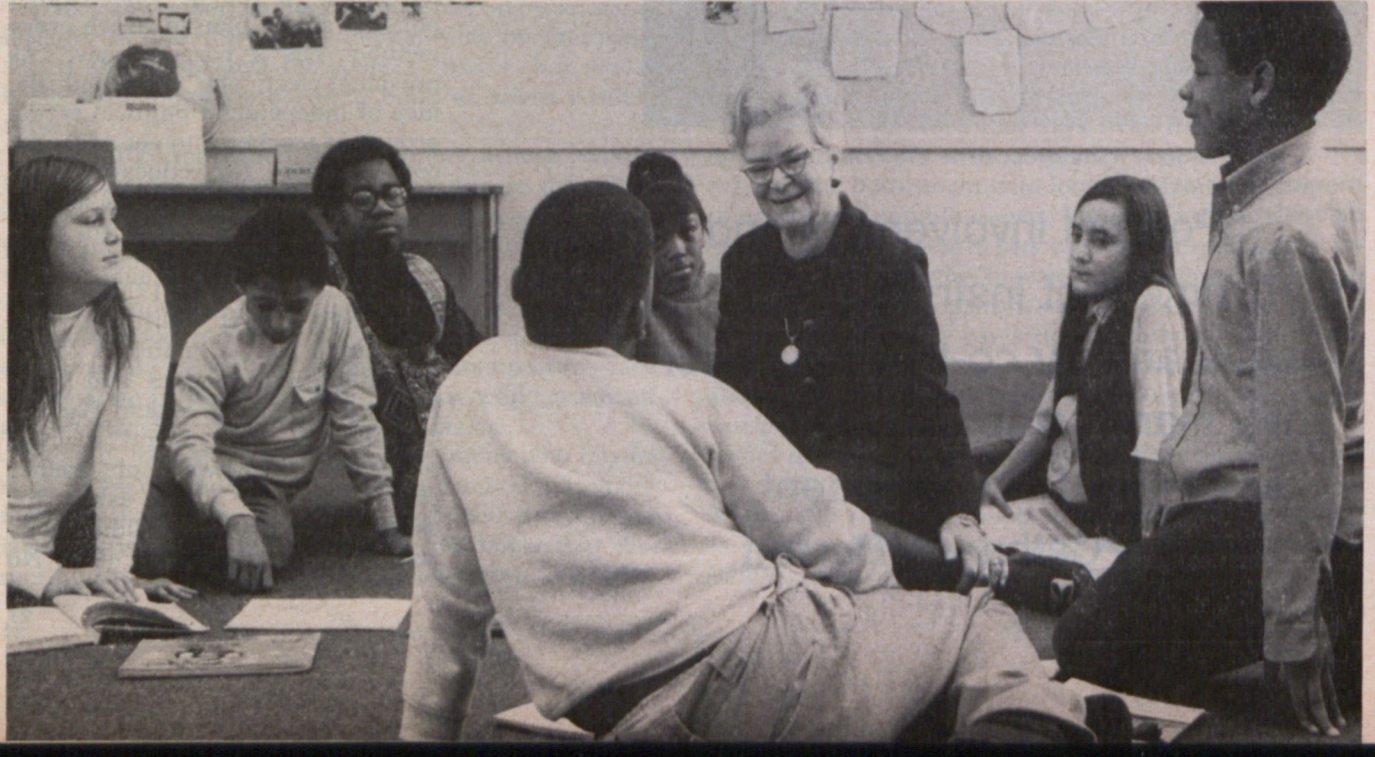
"Different kinds of taxes must be balanced so that no group of citizens is paying more than a fair share; different levels of revenue must be balanced so that no group of students is receiving less than a fair share—by educational standards. The place where the balance must be struck among different kinds of wealth and different amounts of wealth is at the federal level." She believes there is a crucial need for the federal government to bear at least a third of the total cost of public education—a far cry from the approximately 7 percent of the total which the federal establishment is now carrying.

Other legislative goals that President Barrett hopes to pursue include self-governance for teachers, a massive assault on problems of urban education, a national public employees relations act, a federal Department of Education, and a portable teacher retirement act to prevent teachers from losing out on their accrued retirement benefits if they accept positions in other states.

A lifelong resident of New York State, Mrs. Barrett was licensed as a teacher at the tender age of 17 after attending Syracuse City Normal School. She has spent all but one year of her teaching career in Syracuse, also the seat of LeMoyne College, from which she received a bachelor's degree in 1953—a degree supplemented by many hours of advanced work at Syracuse University.

During the coming months, New York will have to share her with the other 49 states as she engages in a nonstop round of activities that would intimidate anyone less energetic and geared for action than she is. Her family—husband Joseph, two married daughters, and 11 grandchildren—will also have to share her with a million and a quarter members of the NEA. But their loss will be education's gain. □

During her year as president, Mrs. Barrett will be on leave from her Syracuse, New York, teaching position.



Let's PACE the Nation!

□ **September, designated by President Nixon as National Voter Registration Month,** marks the traditional beginning of intensive activities connected with federal, state, and local political campaigns. Democratic candidate George McGovern has also called for a massive registration campaign. NEA President Catharine Barrett has urged teachers to get involved in the crucial elections of 1972 (see pages 27-28), and the NEA Division of Government Relations offers the following thoughts and suggestions.

There is only one major difference between a race for alderman and a race for President of the United States—magnitude. Each requires a campaign organization, a manager, a treasurer, volunteers, publicity, and voter registration and turnout. In your leadership role as a teacher, you should begin by encouraging other educators to get involved in the campaign. Your chances of success will increase appreciably if you define your activities in terms which are most directly important to you and your colleagues, such as better funding for our schools.

Restricting your efforts to that issue does not limit the various kinds of elections in which you will become involved. Every level of government affects education. While school board elections and millage and bond referendums have a more immediate, visible impact on schools, the makeup of the state legislature and the kind of person who sits in the governor's chair are probably more important to education in the long run. Remember also that in a very real sense the Congress of the United States is a school board.

As the burdens of state and local governments grow heavier and education looks to Washington for help, the election of Congressmen, Senators, and even the President of the United States becomes of increased importance to the educational community. In the Presidential and Congressional races, teachers will want to work closely with state and national political action committees for education. Therefore, separate political action committees for education (often called PACE) have been formed in the majority of the states and in hundreds of locals throughout the country (further information is available from the NEA Division of Government Relations).

Teachers should have something to say about local elections that are directly related to schools. Help the school board candidates who reflect your views. In that way, at least, you can influence policy decisions. (A voice for teachers on the board can affect negotiations before they even begin; it can determine what sort of superintendent you get.) Keep in mind that if schools and salaries are your only concern, you will lose your most valuable credential—a concern for overall community needs.

Today all public services are under attack; funding is difficult; the tax base is strained. Public health, public safety, roads, and general services all have their own constituencies clamoring for funds. You will have to compete with those constituencies, but remember that you stand to gain by working with them in coalitions whenever feasible. Political compromise is not a secular sin, but the best way to get most things done.

Some Tips for You as an Individual

- Political action costs money. Your contribution, regardless of the amount, can make a difference in the outcome of the elections. Therefore, you should consider how much you can contribute to candidates' campaign committees—and your local and/or state Political Action Committee.*
- Your candidate needs help other than money. He will need volunteer staff to write and mail campaign literature, serve at campaign headquarters, ring doorbells, host campaign coffees and dinners, and assist in other ways required in the campaign.
- Be sure to register for the November election and encourage your colleagues, family, friends, and students who are eligible to do the same. Explain the issues as you see them.
- If your district needs deputy voter registrars, volunteer your services, designating the time you can give to this effort.
- Encourage students 18 and over to register and vote. Newly enfranchised voters need assistance. Some of them may be in your classroom.
- Post the provisions of the recent voting rights legislation (available from your local registrar) on the faculty bulletin board for new teachers and staff members who may not be familiar with them.

Please do these things. The future of American public education depends on the active voting participation of all citizens. You are in a position to explain the issues, encourage registration, and help turn out the vote in this critical election year.

—*NEA Division of Government Relations.*

*You may claim a federal income tax payment credit in an amount equal to one half of your total contributions to all candidates and committees up to $12.50 ($25 on a joint return). Or, if you itemize deductions, you may choose instead to deduct from taxable income total contributions to all candidates and committees up to $50 ($100 on a joint return).

What Prompted the Pyramid Project?

THOMAS M. LEVIN, *sixth grade teacher, Intermediate School, Ocean City, New Jersey.*

☐ **One April afternoon last spring, four girls in my** sixth grade class asked, "How many bricks would we need to build a pyramid?"

"That depends on the size of the pyramid you want to build," I responded. "Why do you want to know?"

"Well, you assigned a project for our unit on Africa and the Middle East," one of the girls began. (I started to shudder.) "And we want to make a brick pyramid, 10 feet high, for the front lawn of the school for our project. That's why we need to know about the bricks."

"Ten-foot-high pyramid? That's a big pyramid!" I exclaimed.

"Well, *you said* that the pyramids in Egypt are hundreds of feet high, and we want to make ours sort of real."

Yes, I had said the pyramids are hundreds of feet high. And I had said each student was to participate in a project as part of his study of Africa and the Middle East. But a pyramid 10 feet high!

Earlier in the school year when the class was working on a mock presidential convention and booklets on drug abuse and on pollution and papier-mâché bridges, I never dreamed some of them would start thinking this big. Like a snowball rolling down a hill, their enthusiasm was growing.

What really inspired these girls the most? The presidential convention?

Since 1972 is a presidential election year, my class staged a nominating convention for the entire school. Rather than reading about political conventions, rather than hearing about them, rather than talking about them, we acted one out for an assembly program.

We divided our city—a shore town on the Atlantic seaboard—into 11 districts. Each district had two delegates.

On the morning of the mock convention, the delegates, holding signs designating their districts, sat among the other students and guests in the assembly audience. On stage, the secretary of the convention called the roll for nominations for candidates for President on the Intermediate School Party ticket (this was a strictly nonpartisan adventure). The roll call started with Boardwalk. When it got to Corson's Inlet, the delegate yielded to Riviera for the nomination "of a truly great American."

After a demonstration for the nominee, complete with noisemakers, posters, and booklets, a second nomination and demonstration followed. Nominations closed. Then the secretary called the roll as the delegates voted for one of the nominees. When a tie developed, Boardwalk moved that the guests at the convention (the entire student body) help break the tie by voting. Riviera seconded the motion, and it carried.

Using a voting machine the class had borrowed from the Cape May County Board of Elections, the students made their choice. In a close vote, the nominee who had promised "to persuade the cooks in the cafeteria to take it easy on the peanut butter in the peanut-butter-and-jelly sandwiches" won the election.

Had this experience inspired the girls to want to build a pyramid? Or had preparing the booklets fired them?

Last year I submitted a proposal to the Teacher Innovation Program, a project to fund worthwhile classroom programs sponsored by the New Jersey State Department of Education. When my suggestion was accepted, my class received a grant of $1,000 to prepare booklets on drug abuse and on pollution on six grade levels, kindergarten through fifth grade.

Eight groups of four students each developed at least one booklet apiece with a picture and narrative. They ran off copies on a duplicator purchased with part of the $1,000. The class produced ten 20-page booklets, 500 copies of each. Then, they distributed them to the appropriate students.

The class also conducted an opinion poll in the community on drug problems and published the results as part of the project. They sent the results "to public officials to help them make good decisions about the drug abuse problem." Governor William T. Cahill of New Jersey sent his copy to the Gallup Poll for evaluation and comment. President Richard M. Nixon was "pleased to learn from your [the students'] poll of your deep concern for this serious problem of drug addiction."

Was it this project that fired up my prospective pyramid-building students? Or did the papier-mâché bridges provide the impetus?

Bridges of almost every size and description span the waters of our seashore resort area. In a unit on oceanography and engineering, the students in my class built three- to five-foot-high scale models of truss, suspension, simple beam, arch, and bowstring arch bridges.

They used newspaper, compactly rolled or neatly folded, to mold their bridges. Then they stripped newspaper, dipped it into wheat paste, wrapped it around the mold, and let it dry. After this process

was completed, they spray-painted their creations in fluorescent colors (the bridges glow under the light of the four-foot-long black light in our classroom).

Did the bridges do it? Maybe it was the scrapbook project.

Using 12 x 18 inch sheets of stiff paper, the class kept a yearbook of its activities. The book features color snapshots of students making booklets, giving speeches at the political convention, constructing bridges, and engaging in other class projects. It also contains a separate page on each student in the class, complete with color photo and personal data sheet (name, nickname, hobbies, favorite expression, and so on).

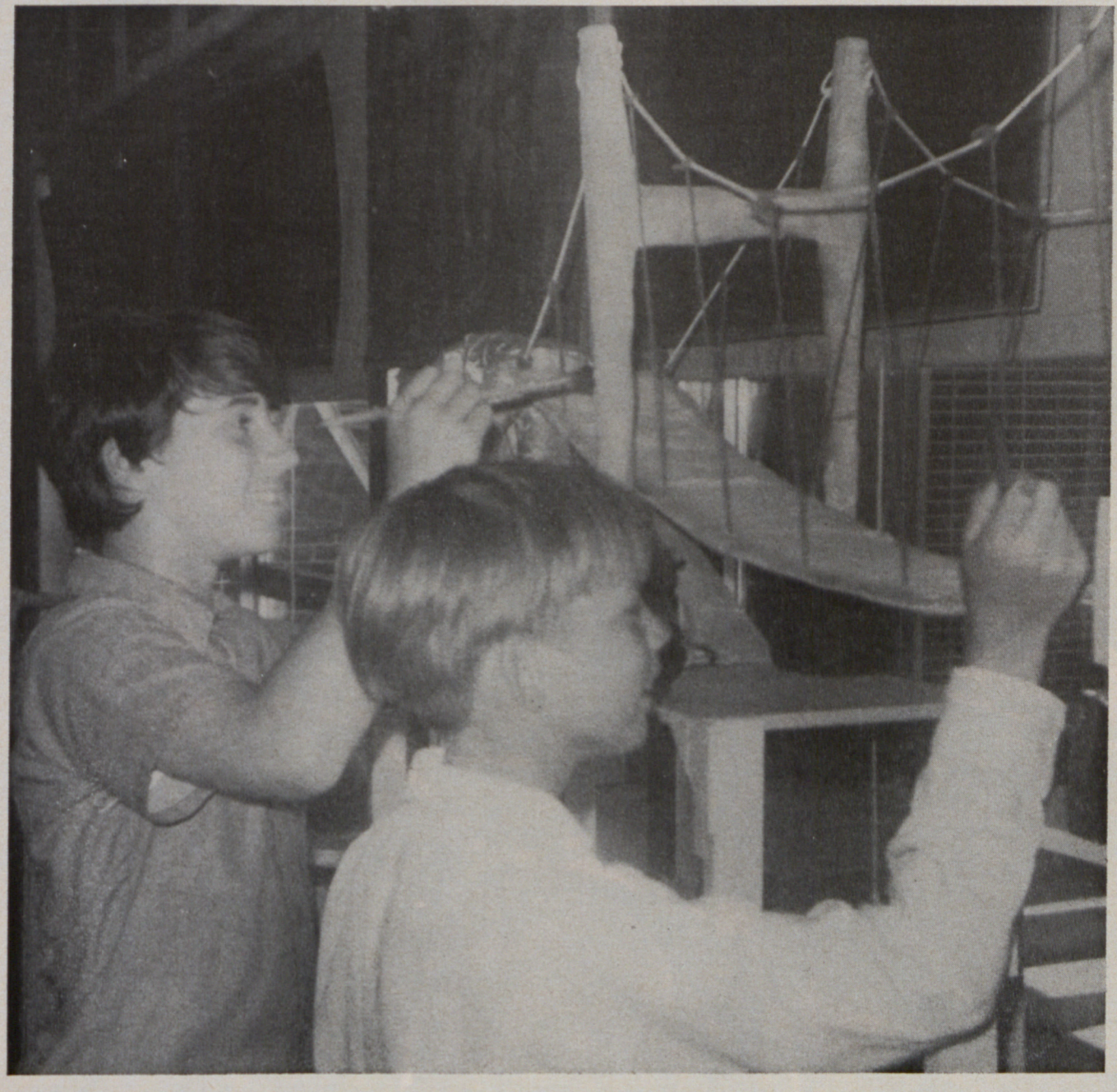
On the front and back covers (made of thin plywood), each student inscribed his signature and favorite doodle. Then the cover was sealed with a varnish to preserve it.

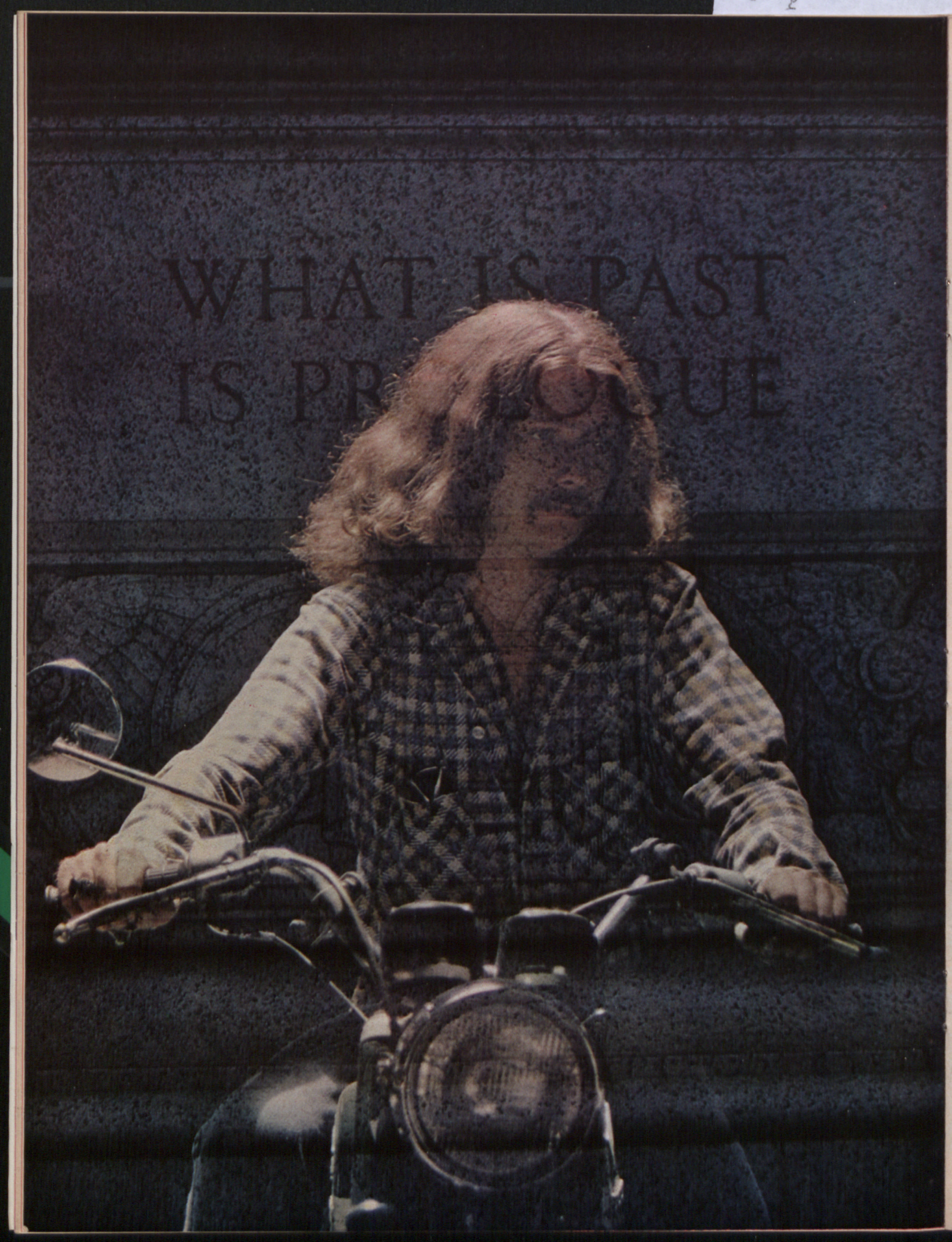
Did the scrapbook prompt the girls to think of the pyramid project?

Perhaps all of these activities inspired my students. Each project broadened their horizons—got them to think big, probably accounting for the idea about the pyramid.

By the way, the school couldn't permit the girls to construct the pyramid on the front lawn. However, they built a pyramid anyway—a two-foot-high model made of sugar cubes for display in the classroom. □

Did building the bridges prompt the pyramid project?




WHAT IS PAST
IS PR

Is the Past relevant?

WILLIAM S. BANOWSKY, *president, Pepperdine University, Los Angeles.*

□ **It is now the intellectual fashion in our country** to disregard the importance of the past in meeting the challenges of a technological age. In fact, there is an open disdain for history to a degree never before known in America.

Many people believe in a radical discontinuity between our generation and all preceding ones. This sense of discontinuity grows from the feeling that our lives have undergone changes so cataclysmic—changes wrought by war; by the social and theological revolutions; and by explosions in population, scientific knowledge, and urban growth—that we now face an entirely new experience in living. Life in the present, we are told, is so vastly different from the past and the challenges of the future are so fundamentally new that the experiences of our forefathers are simply not relevant.

Of course, there is nothing new or unusual about a teen-ager's saying to his parents, "Oh, you don't understand! You never faced the problems that I now face." Teen-agers have, no doubt, been saying that for centuries.

What is new and alarming, however, is the widespread acceptance of the idea of discontinuity at a philosophical level. Peter Drucker's recent book is titled *The Age of Discontinuity*. Alvin Toffler's *Future Shock* and Charles A. Reich's *The Greening of America* are best sellers which make the same point. The respected historian, J. H. Plumb, has written a book called *The Death of the Past*. Professor Plumb is not saying that the past never happened. His thesis is that our previous perception of the past is no longer valid. And Walter Lippmann, who is clearly no teen-ager, holds the same view. He says, "The vast upheavals of the twentieth century have rendered the knowledge of the ages obsolete. The traditional wisdom is irrelevant for our time."

What we now confront, then, is a cult of contemporaneity. We hear constantly of a generation gap. People are being driven apart by an ugly process of polarization which demands a choice between the past and the present, the young and the old, the then and the now. "You can't trust anybody over thirty!" was an early slogan of the cult. The test of validity is relevance, and only the contemporary is relevant.

Our institutions—the home, the church, the courts, the universities—have been shaken by our obeisance to the youth cult. Grandmothers wear miniskirts; middle-aged executives extend the length of their locks; and the worst of possible sins is to be thought old-fashioned.

At a time when wise leadership is so desperately needed, we capitulate to our children. Thousands of teen-agers who have not lived long enough to acquire either judgment or wisdom become the sages of our time.

The existential moment is all that counts, and the present is exalted because it is the now. Only those who are with it, who are tuned in, can cope with the new questions.

We hear of the now generation. While all of us want peace, some shout, "Peace now!" At Los Angeles' Ambassador Hotel, the sedate and venerable Cocoanut Grove gets a face-lift and comes back as the Now Grove. And people in Fort Worth, Texas, known for more than a century as Cowtown, proudly display bumper stickers announcing they live in Now Town. (You can tell a lot about a culture by reading its bumper stickers.)

The old story about the airplane in trouble points up the almost irresistible appeal of the new. The captain asked some of the passengers to jettison themselves to lighten the load. A Frenchman leaped out first shouting, "Vive la France!" An Englishman followed with "God save the Queen!" But the American, next in line, turned pale and backed away from the door. At this point, the captain whispered something in his ear. Then the American promptly leaped out the door. A passenger asked the pilot, "What in the world did you whisper to him?" The captain replied, "I said, 'Go ahead and try it; it's new.' "

There is reason to question whether our preoccupation with the present is a good omen. Little wonder that ours is sometimes called the age of alienation and that young people, especially, feel cut adrift and depressed by a sense of impermanence, a rootlessness.

We are now in grave danger of becoming a cut-flower civilization. Beautiful as cut flowers may be and much as we use our ingenuity to keep them

(*Continued on page* 63)

Dr. Banowsky spoke at greater length on this subject at the annual convention of the National Association of Secondary School Principals in Anaheim, California.

Picture if you will: FARQUHAR Middle School

□ **Individualization of instruction . . . a team approach** . . . flexible scheduling . . . nongrading . . . an environment that fosters student independence and self-direction . . . a guidance orientation. These hip educational goals were part of the philosophy of Farquhar Middle School when it opened its doors in 1968 to serve a rural community in northwestern Montgomery County, Maryland.

The socioeconomic level of the people in the area runs the gamut from extreme poverty to wealth. When Farquhar began its program (the first of its kind in the County), the Montgomery County Department of Pupil and Program Appraisal found that 10 percent of the incoming pupils were economically disadvantaged; 30 percent were socially and/or behaviorally disadvantaged; 30 percent were one or more years below grade level in reading and in mathematics; and 15 percent were two or more years below grade level in reading and in mathematics.

In the school's brief history, critics have attacked both the staff and the program. Some detractors claim the staff is lax on discipline and doesn't place sufficient emphasis on academic subjects. They also disapprove of the nongraded concept.

In 1970, a Community-Faculty Forum of 12 educators and parents met each Wednesday through the summer for two hours to evaluate the school program and suggest changes. Many of their suggestions have been implemented, including closer supervision of students in halls and cafeteria and the establishment of a mathematics lab and a reading lab to upgrade student performance in these areas. (Evidence of the effectiveness of Farquhar's instructional program is the steady increase in each seventh grade's composite scores on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills: 1969, 39; 1970 and 1971, 45; and 1972, 61. In the same period, no significant changes occurred in the average IQ or socioeconomic status of the student body.)

In September of last year, at the request of the school principal, an Evaluation Committee of 13 professional educators from the County initiated an assessment of Farquhar to determine whether the school is moving toward its goals. The January 1972 report of the Committee ends with these comments:

> . . . When a school attempts to change the existing patterns across the whole spectrum of institutional operation, it places itself in jeopardy. The forces of [the] *status quo* are automatically aligned against its efforts. For the most part, when teachers and administrators commit themselves to this cause, they place themselves at the growing edge of educational progress. It is no easy task that they assume. The temptation to retrench toward the more familiar and, therefore, more easily acceptable patterns can be overwhelming. The Committee hopes that through its efforts it may contribute toward the improvement of the staff's skills to match its courage.

The basic unit of activity at Farquhar is the team. The school has seven teams, some made up of fifth, sixth, and seventh graders and the others, of sixth, seventh, and eighth graders. (In addition, Farquhar has two self-contained classes of special education pupils.)

Each team has seven certificated teachers:

- the team leader (three are guidance counselors; two are assistant principals who were former counselors; and two are regular classroom teachers).
- four teachers in major subject areas (mathematics, language arts, social studies, and science).
- one generalist whose assignment field depends on the needs of the students on the team. (On most of the teams, the generalist is working in reading or language arts.)
- one arts teacher who rotates from one team to another every nine weeks (industrial arts, home economics, music, art).

Four resource teachers, one in each major subject matter area, aid the teams. These four attempt to ensure the quality of instruction in their areas by funneling resource materials to teachers and students, teaching demonstration lessons, assisting beginning teachers, and working with small groups of children.

A teaching aide works with each team for half a day every day. Also, Farquhar has one full-time reading teacher who assists staff and helps children with reading problems.

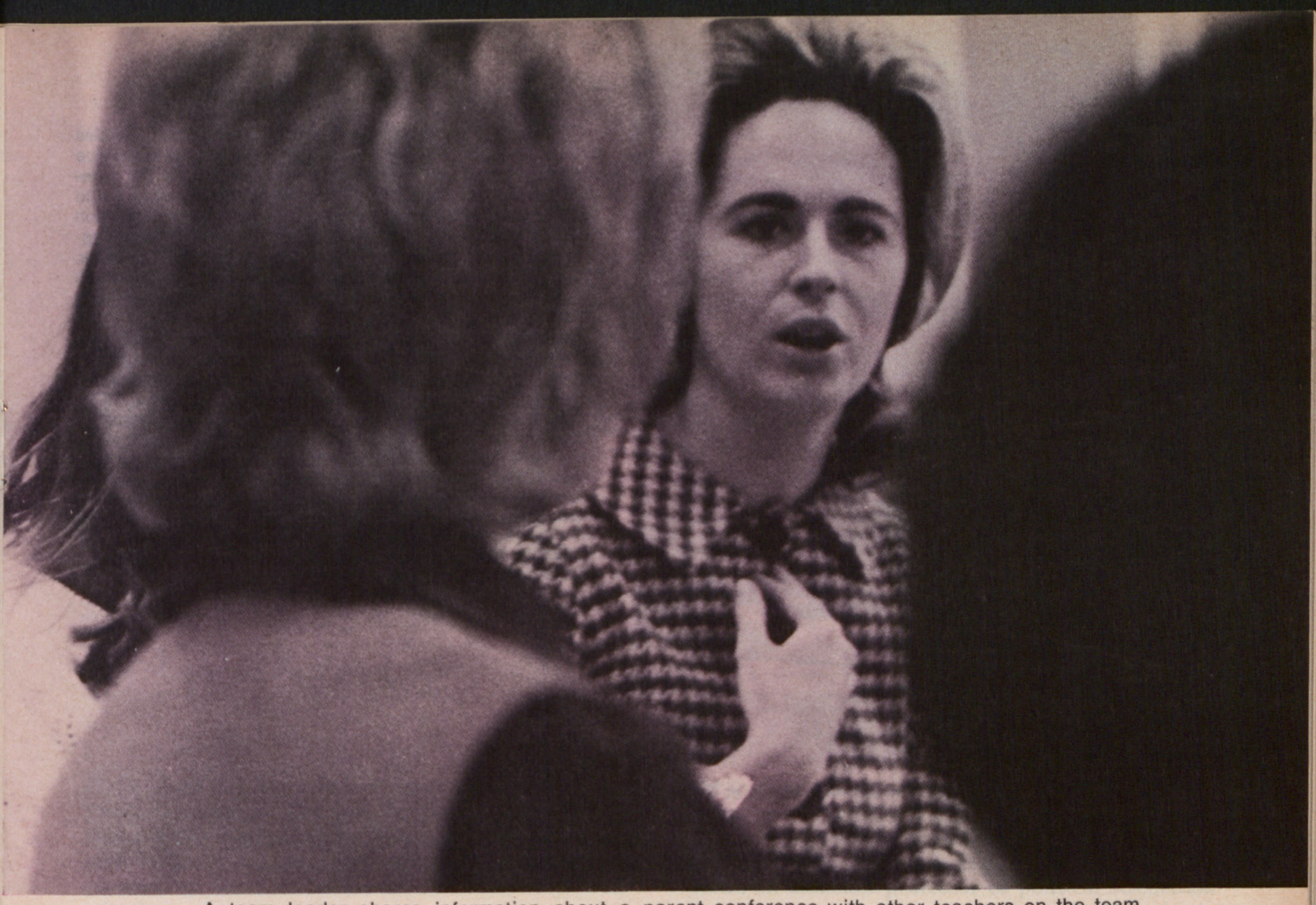
Each team has almost an hour of joint planning time a day, and each teacher has an additional hour for individual preparation in his subject area, grading papers, counseling students, and so on.

Team planning lends itself toward an interdisciplinary approach to education. For example, when one team had a unit on Latin America in social studies last year, students learned Latin American melodies in music class. In science, the team studied the climate of the area; in mathematics, its latitude and longitude; and in language arts, students wrote to appropriate embassies for information and to pen pals in Latin American countries.

On the day a former high school teacher was at Farquhar, a group of students wanted to organize an antiwar protest. "Instead of pooh-poohing the kids as many adults are prone to do, the teachers involved helped the group arrange a debate on the subject," she commented.

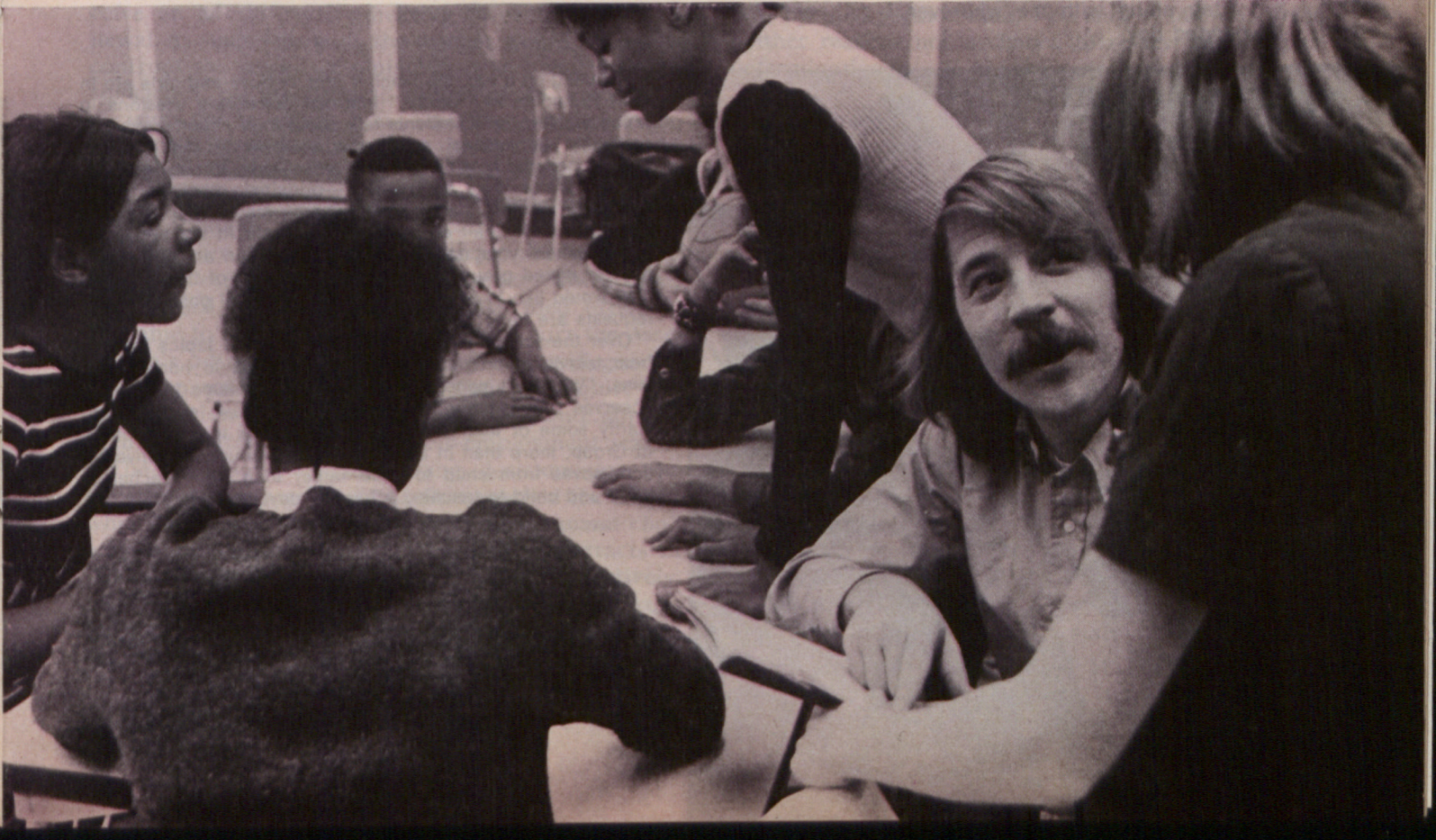
Carol Crump, a student teacher at Farquhar last year from the University of Maryland, says the most impressive aspect of the school is the respect teachers show students. She also speaks appreciatively of the manner in which the school community received her. "Students and teachers treated me as part of the team. When I participated in team planning sessions, I was encouraged—not just *permitted*—to make suggestions."

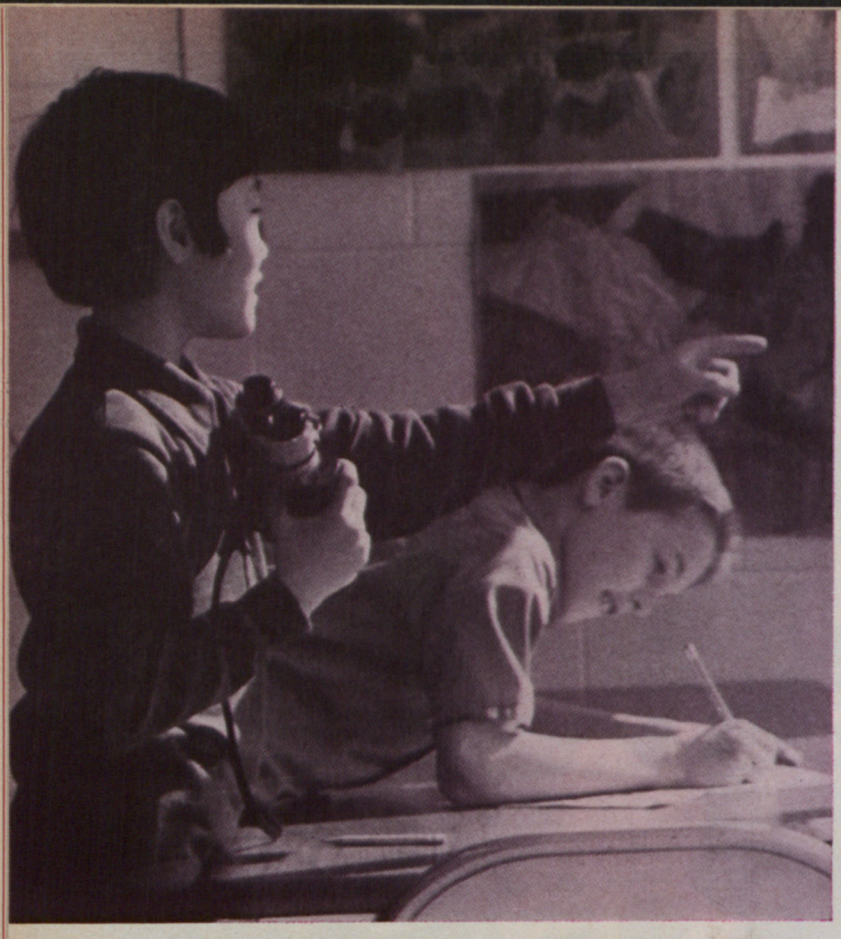
Literal signs of respect for children? Student rest rooms bear the placards "Young Ladies" and "Young Gentlemen." A carrel tucked away in the corner of one art room has this inviting sign: "Do you want to be alone this period (and do some reading or a puzzle)?"



A team leader shares information about a parent conference with other teachers on the team.

The staff at Farquhar takes kids seriously as people and respects their concerns.





Students work on a project in science class at Farquhar.

The Institute for the Development of Educational Activities (I/D/E/A) is developing multimedia packages of in-service training materials on individualizing instruction. In the materials for educators working with children from ages 10 to 15, Farquhar Middle School served as a shooting location for six filmstrips on "How To Manage an Individualized Program." Why Farquhar? Billy B. Reeves of I/D/E/A explains, "Farquhar is one of the few schools in the country with which I'm familiar that is really making a significant effort to individualize instruction."

Teachers in each academic area have set up interest centers, equipping them with appropriate learning packages. In general, the staff prepares materials that reflect the reading levels and academic backgrounds of the students.

One science teacher uses a color code to designate differences in materials. Children who work with red-coded materials have had considerable experience and success with science and read at or above grade level. Those who use orange read on grade level but have not had some of the experience of the former students, and the group working with yellow materials have reading problems but find satisfaction in laboratory work in which problems are prepared at their grade level.

The teacher begins, "Most brothers and sisters . . ."
". . . invade my bedroom," moans one girl glumly.
". . . are nice," offers another.
". . . bug me!" says the scamp beside him.
". . . tag along with me wherever I go," complains a towheaded boy.

Relaxing on a rug, the teacher and 13 boys and girls are in what is known as "Group," informal discussion sessions in which teachers and students talk about their experiences and concerns. Sometimes, as in the instance to the left, the teacher gets the session going; at other times, the students do.

Each professional on the staff—principal, resource teachers, team leaders, classroom teachers—meets with 12 or 13 pupils for about half an hour once a week. At the beginning of the school year, students request to be in an all-girl, all-boy, or mixed group and turn in the names of three friends they would like to have in their group. If at all possible, their requests are honored.

Over the school year, groups might discuss topics ranging from television programs to sports to drugs to home problems. "We don't necessarily solve any problems in Group," observes one teacher, "but the children have a chance to clarify some of their viewpoints and to talk to one another. In Group, more than in any other school situation, conversation moves from child to child rather than from teacher to child and child to teacher. A healthy development." □

U.S. Supreme Court Supports Teachers' Due Process Rights

☐ **On June 29, an event of great consequence for** teachers occurred. The U.S. Supreme Court affirmed that publicly employed teachers may not be denied a new contract because they have exercised a right secured by the First Amendment to the U.S. Constitution.

The Court further ruled that, in certain cases, a teacher whose contract is not being renewed may, even though he lacks formal tenure, request and receive an administrative hearing prior to his nonrenewal. At such a hearing, the teacher would be able to confront the school administration and challenge the sufficiency of the reasons advanced to justify the decision not to rehire him. This procedural requirement of a hearing will protect the teacher from arbitrary administrative action and thus afford him due process of law before he can lose his teaching position.

The National Education Association, through its DuShane Emergency Fund, supported the lawsuits of two nontenured college faculty members whose cases were heard by the Court. NEA also filed briefs in its name to make known to the High Court the Association's advocacy of procedures which will guarantee due process. NEA urged the Court to require fair consideration for all teachers, tenured and nontenured, in matters relating to their employment status.

The complex and far-reaching decisions are the latest results of actions which first reached the courts when David E. Roth and Robert P. Sindermann challenged the nonrenewal of their teaching contracts in federal courts in Wisconsin and Texas, respectively. Both alleged that the nonrenewals stemmed from their exercise of the First Amendment right of free expression. Both claimed that they were entitled, prior to nonrenewal, to a written list of reasons and a hearing at which they would have a chance to demonstrate that their nonretention was in retaliation for their constitutionally protected outspokenness.

Roth, an assistant professor of political science on a one-year contract to teach for the 1968-69 academic year at the University of Wisconsin (Oshkosh), was not rehired. In accordance with the rules of the University, Roth was informed of the decision to nonrenew by the specified date, February 1, but was given neither reasons nor a chance to review the officials' determination.

In the fall of 1968, a campus disturbance had occurred, and the University suspended en masse 94 black students who were arrested. Roth, criticizing the University's action, advocated that these students be permitted to return to the University pending individual determination of wrongdoing. His suggestion was rejected. After Roth initiated his lawsuit, he was able to see his personnel file, which revealed that despite superior evaluations and an initial unanimous vote by the tenured members of his department to reappoint him, the dean had prevailed upon these members to reconsider their decision and to vote against his reappointment. Roth's criticism of the way the University dealt with the black students, the dean had written, demonstrated "a very unscholarly approach to truth and the search for knowledge that make[s] it doubtful that he has the qualities of scholarship desirable in a faculty member. . . ."

Sindermann, a professor of government and social science at Odessa Junior College in Texas, had been employed for 10 years in the state college system—four at OJC—before the Board of Regents voted to

deny him a contract for the 1969-70 academic year. The Regents issued a press release detailing charges of Sindermann's insubordination but failed to furnish Sindermann with an official list of reasons or a chance to refute the allegations at a hearing. In federal court, Sindermann alleged that the decision not to reemploy him was motivated by his testimony before state legislative committees in favor of academic freedom and tenure for junior college faculty and by his public comments advocating elevation of the College to four year status.

The High Court did not make a final determination concerning whether or when Roth and Sindermann will be reinstated by their respective colleges. Their cases will be returned to district courts in Wisconsin and Texas for trial on the merits. However, in considering the specific questions before it, the Court ruled on certain aspects of a teacher's entitlement to procedural due process—a statement of reasons and a hearing—before he can be nonrenewed.

A nontenured teacher is entitled to a hearing in federal court if he alleges that the nonretention is a reprisal for his exercise of First Amendment rights, the Court held. Accordingly, Sindermann may now contest his nonrenewal in federal district court by trying to prove that the motivation for his nonrenewal was unconstitutional.

The Supreme Court also held that an administrative hearing prior to his nonrenewal is required for a nontenured teacher only if he "can show that the decision not to rehire him somehow deprived him of an interest in 'liberty' or that he had a 'property' interest in continued employment, despite the lack of tenure or a formal contract." This reasoning is in response to claims by the teachers that their nonrenewal invoked the protection of the Fourteenth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution, which states, in part, that no state "shall . . . deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law."

The teachers had insisted that, by failing to renew their contracts, their schools, as agencies of the state, had deprived them of the "liberty" to pursue their careers and the "property" of their pay for the following year. The Court accepted the teachers' position in principle but defined "liberty" and "property" more restrictively than had been advocated by NEA. Since the deprivation of his interest in liberty or property must be shown before the nontenured teacher has a legal right to procedural due process as embodied in an administrative hearing, the Court's definitions will limit the number of situations in which a nontenured teacher is entitled to an administrative hearing when faced with nonrenewal.

In the *Roth* opinion, the Supreme Court restated an earlier definition of liberty as "not merely freedom from bodily restraint but also the right of the individual to contract, to engage in any of the common occupations of life, to acquire useful knowledge, to marry, [to] establish a home and bring up children, to worship God according to the dictates of his own conscience, and generally to enjoy those privileges long recognized . . . as essential to the orderly pursuit of happiness by free men."

Thus, a nontenured teacher would be entitled to procedural due process if:

1. The school board or college trustees filed charges against him which would have a deleterious effect on his standing or associations in his community. The Court said such charges include personal dishonesty and immorality. It appears that accusations of professional incompetence or insubordination, since they have similar effect, would also fall within this rule.

2. The teacher's nonrenewal has the effect of imposing a stigma barring him from other employment opportunities in his profession either in the same university system or geographic region. Here, clearly, the teacher would be required to offer proof that, despite his efforts to find a new position, the fact of his nonrenewal was responsible for his failure to obtain another suitable job.

3. The nonrenewal created a disability which would foreclose future employment opportunities. Although the Court did not clarify its intent, nontenured teachers whose age, years of teaching experience, and high rank on salary scales make it difficult for them to obtain new jobs may now assert a disability claim in pursuing the right to due process. Whether the doctrine might also apply to a situation where a teacher's family or graduate study responsibilities preclude his changing jobs was not stated.

A teacher who is deprived of "property" as a result of nonrenewal is also entitled to due process. Calling continued public employment a benefit in which a person may have a continuing interest, the High Court said that a property right may be established when an individual has an objective expectancy of reemployment rather than merely a unilateral or subjective one. Because state statutes or university rules or policies may limit a teacher's claims to employment security, the Court indicated that not all teachers can claim a right to be rehired.

The Court stated that in all situations a tenured or a nontenured teacher threatened with dismissal during the term of a contract is entitled to reasons and a hearing prior to administrative action. This is so because the teacher involved has a "property" interest in completing the year's teaching assignment. Tenured teachers are similarly entitled to due process in year-end nonrenewals of their contracts. State tenure laws, of course, already provide that a teacher with tenure is entitled to a hearing when faced with termination. These state procedures are unaffected by the Court's ruling.

Concerning the question of the rights of nontenured teachers whose contracts are not renewed for the following year, the Court stated that the administration must grant a hearing prior to nonrenewal of the nontenured teacher's contract if the teacher can show that:

1. He has de facto tenure because the institution

has established guidelines of "explicit understandings" printed in official faculty handbooks which appear to grant some form of job tenure after a certain period of service in the school or college system.

2. The institution's policies and past practices, especially as they relate to teachers with long service, would lead the teacher to expect reemployment.

3. The contract provides for reappointment in the absence of "sufficient cause."

4. Teachers in the institution can expect contract renewal when their classroom performance receives favorable evaluations or no reprimands or adverse criticisms.

The NEA's DuShane Emergency Fund will assist members in future court actions to clarify the meaning of the Supreme Court's opinions in *Roth* and *Sindermann* and thereby continue to extend the scope of court protection of the rights of teachers. Future litigation will clarify current uncertainties, such as:

- The kind of evidence required to prove deprivation of "liberty" or "property" under the Fourteenth Amendment.
- The types of approaches to school boards needed to obtain pretermination hearings.
- The necessary factors and longevity of service which establish de facto tenure or a right to reemployment.
- The precise nature of the elements of a due process hearing, including utilization of neutral third-party decision makers in employment disputes.

—DuShane Emergency Fund, NEA Teacher Rights Division.

THE LAW AND TEACHER RIGHTS: Political Rights

This is the first in a series of articles on questions that relate to the emerging rights of teachers. The series is being presented by the staff of the DuShane Emergency Fund of NEA's Teacher Rights Division.

Custom and some local, state, and federal laws restrict teachers from taking an active role in political campaigns, running for public office, or becoming involved in political controversy. Recent federal court decisions, however, have supplemented several states' statutes and court decisions which confirm the position that, as a citizen, a teacher should be free to participate in political and legislative activities as well as to advocate social, economic, and political reform.

Recent lawsuits—many financed by NEA's DuShane Emergency Fund—are seeking to provide broader constitutional protection for educators who engage in political activity as citizens. Legal battles are being waged to ensure their right to pursue the following kinds of activities:

- Petitioning officials for redress of grievances
- Organizing political groups
- Assisting candidates in campaigns for public office
- Campaigning for election to public office
- Serving in public office
- Working in voter registration drives
- Taking positions contrary to those of school boards or administrators on educational matters, including tax levies, fiscal policies, or status of an education institution.

Courts have ruled for the teacher in many instances. In a precedential decision reinstating a black East Texas teacher who was nonrenewed because he violated a school board policy forbidding teachers from any political participation save casting a ballot, a federal court declared: ". . . the complete ban on the right of teachers to express political opinions and engage in political activity is inconsistent with the First Amendment guarantees of freedom of speech, press, assembly, and petition." The teacher had engaged in voter registration drives and in a successful campaign to secure black representation on the school board.

Similarly, a federal appeals court upheld a North Carolina teacher's right to participate in demonstrations protesting racial discrimination and in drives to register voters. The court found the board's nonrenewal of her teaching contract to be a reprisal for her extracurricular civil rights activity and ordered her reinstatement.

Awarding $49,100 in damages, another federal court held that a Utah history professor's failure to gain tenure status was punishment for his having supported a particular candidate in a state political race and for having opposed the college administration while he was a leader of his faculty association.

The United States Supreme Court has spoken on the question of First Amendment rights exercised outside the classroom. In a case dealing with the power of a school board to fire a high school teacher who criticized its fiscal policies in a letter printed in a local newspaper, the Court insisted that the board had violated the teacher's constitutional rights. (It is particularly interesting to note that the Court ruled in favor of the teacher even though his criticisms were inadvertently based on some inaccurate data.)

The Supreme Court took the position that the question of whether a school system requires additional funds is a matter of legitimate public concern: "On such a question free and open debate is vital to informed decision making by the electorate." The Court also added: "Teachers are, as a class, the members of a community most likely to have informed and definite opinions as to how funds allotted to the operation of the schools should be spent. Accordingly, it is essential that they be able to speak out freely on such questions without any fear of retaliatory dismissal."

Generally the courts have been more restrictive on the question of partisan political behavior or speech in the classroom. However, recent decisions have allowed certain expressions of views held by the teacher. A future column will address this topic. □

THE IQ

LILLIAN ZACH, *associate professor of psychology and education, Ferkauf Graduate School of Humanities and Social Sciences, Yeshiva University, New York.*

□ **Intelligence testing, from basis to implications,** continues to be the center of heated debate. Despite a history which is almost three quarters of a century long and despite the fact that the IQ is by now a household term in America, mental tests are still reeling under the impact of criticisms which term them, among other things, invalid, misleading, and based upon false assumptions of human development.

In a highly controversial article published in December 1969, Arthur Jensen, a professor at the University of California at Berkeley, proposed that compensatory education failed to raise the IQ of black children because of a biological difference in the way these children learn. The topic became incendiary; psychological, educational, political, and racist groups began interpreting the data to suit their views. Arguments and criticisms continue. Yet, unquestionably, the Stanford-Binet, the Wechsler Scales, and certain group tests do provide useful information, and the tests remain the most relied-on source for sorting children according to their presumed learning ability. Is it any wonder that teachers are uncertain what to believe about intelligence testing?

Binet's original intent was to develop an instrument to determine which children in Paris were retarded and in need of special education. In 1905, he produced the first Binet scale, designed to measure a retarded child's intelligence and compare it to the intelligence of normal children the same age. There was no attempt to determine whether the child's retarded learning was genetic or curable.

In 1912, German psychologist Wilhelm Stern suggested that one could express the developmental level, or mental age, of a given child as the age at which the average child achieved equivalent ability. If mental age (MA) were used as a ratio to the child's chronological age (CA), one could arrive at a brightness index, now called the Intelligence Quotient (IQ).

Like Binet, Stern did not claim that the test measured inborn capacity. In 1914, he wrote, "No series of tests, however skillfully selected it may be, does reach the innate intellectual endowment, stripped of all complications, but rather this endowment, in conjunction with all influences to which the examinee has been subjected up to the moment of testing. And it is just these external influences that are different in the lower social classes. Children of higher social status are much more often in the company of adults, are stimulated in manifold ways, are busy in play and amusement with things that require thinking, acquire a totally different vocabulary, and receive better school instruction. All this must bring it about that they meet the demands of the test better than children of the uncultured classes."

But H. H. Goddard, who brought the test to America in 1910, had a very different viewpoint. Dr. Goddard translated the test into English for use at the Vineland Training School for the mentally defective. Perhaps it was an act of fate that the man who brought mental testing to this country was someone who emphasized the importance of heredity on human behavior.

Goddard was working with grossly defective children, and one can speculate that he was probably not convinced they could be educated. (Further, the chances are they were biologically defective as well as mentally retarded.) Goddard became intrigued with the notion that, being able to measure innate intelligence, we had the means for a sweeping program of social reform, with every man working on his own mental level. Soon, mental testing was adopted in every training school and teachers college in the country. Few stopped to consider that perhaps the innate intelligence which Goddard postulated and the intelligence measured by the test were not the same. Shortly thereafter, in 1916, L. M. Terman revised the Binet Scale at Stanford University to give birth to the Stanford-Binet, the standard of today's intelligence test. The test was revised and updated in 1937 and 1960. The rapid growth of compulsory education in the United States required some means to identify the intellectual capacities of pupils in the schools, and the Stanford-Binet seemed to fill the bill.

When the intelligence test is evaluated solely in terms of its value to meet specifically defined, immediate situations, its usefulness has proven itself. A good case in point can be seen in its use since the start of World War I to screen men for the armed forces. In these instances, the mental test has provided the means for appraising what an individual

DEBATE

Moratorium on Standardized Testing

"This Representative Assembly directs the NEA to immediately call a national moratorium on standardized testing, and at the same time to set up a task force on standardized testing to research and make its findings available to the 1975 Representative Assembly for further action."

The above "Item of New Business" was passed by the NEA Representative Assembly in Atlantic City, New Jersey, in June 1972. In another action on this subject, the Representative Assembly passed Resolution 72-44, Standardized Tests, which says:

"The NEA strongly encourages the elimination of group standardized intelligence, aptitude, and achievement tests to assess student potential or achievement until completion of a critical appraisal, review, and revision of current testing programs."

could do, here and now, as the product of his biological inheritance and his training and background.

But as testing proliferated, some problems became apparent. Testing in America was growing along two separate paths. One was in the real world of the school, the armed forces, and the industrial plant. The other was in the halls of academe, where the basic theoretical issues of intelligence were not yet settled. This lack of a universally accepted theoretical framework led to the anomolous situation in which intelligence is defined as that which intelligence tests test.

Herein lies a dilemma: Intelligence was only vaguely defined by the test maker, but the tests were used to define intelligence. This is perhaps the greatest failure of the testing movement in the United States. The pragmatic value of the mental test is undiminished. Test scores are good indicators of functioning abilities as long as their limitations are clearly understood, but these scores should not be used outside of their immediate significance. The failure lies not in the mental tests themselves, but in the perversion of the test results by investigators and social philosophers who use numbers in support of particular far-reaching positions. It is unfair both to the person tested and to the test itself to say that the scores of any one individual represent support for broad statements concerning human development.

There is nothing inherently wrong with practical definitions as long as they are clearly understood. The tests, after all, were developed to measure those aspects of human behavior which correlate well with scholastic achievement. In order to succeed in school, an individual must demonstrate certain types of abilities. If we develop tests to measure these abilities and if they prove to be valid and reliable instruments, we are measuring some form of intellectual ability. But if we lose sight of what we are measuring and if we claim for the test qualities for which it was never intended, we can be led into invalid implications.

The IQ, like the MA, is nothing but a score. The IQ indicates a child's performance on a test in the same way that a score of 80 on an arithmetic test does, except that intelligence tests purport to measure more general learning skills. Further, the scores merely reflect the child's performance on a specific test at a given time. The difference between the IQ and other test scores is that intelligence tests are standardized. Standardization means that the same test items are developed and revised on a large group, representative of the population for whom the test is designed—U.S. elementary school students, for example. Standardization also requires that the same test be administered under the same carefully controlled conditions to all who take the test. This means that a given child's score can be compared with scores obtained by other children of the same age on whom the test was originally standardized. It also permits prediction of the chances that in later testing a given child will obtain a score which is close to the original score, and further, to what extent a given child's performance is the result of the construction of the test rather than his own ability.

In order to interpret the results of standardized tests, certain fundamental assumptions are implicit. It is assumed, for example, that test norms are fair, since they are based on a representative national sampling of children. But this does not take into consideration the fact that the national sample is weighted heavily by average white children.

Since the mental test purports to measure basic learning capacities, it is also assumed that the items which make up the test are of two types—information which for the most part all children have been exposed to or situations to which no one has been exposed.

For items based upon supposedly equal opportunities of exposure, it is possible to reason that a child who has learned what he has been exposed to is bright; one who has not done so is not bright. Observation tells us that this does not have to be true.

In my own testing experiences, I found that many black children who had just come North gave as response to the question, "Who discovered America?" the answer, "Abraham Lincoln." The response is obviously wrong and adds no points to the IQ score. But does this response mean that this child has no ability to learn or does it merely reflect the child's background? In certain ways, the answer could be considered a meaningful and pertinent response.

For items to which no one has been exposed and which therefore demand "on the spot" learning, similar problems arise. Usually, tests try to utilize nonverbal materials like blocks and puzzles as a way of minimizing factors like education and experience. But these are not equally novel experiences for all children. Many youngsters are familiar with educational toys long before they enter school. (Even more important, and less easy to identify, are factors related to "learning to learn" and test-taking abilities.)

Another assumption is that the mental test is a sampling of behaviors which directly reflect the general capacity for learning. Actually, all available intelligence tests are direct measures only of achievement in learning. We wrongly equate the inferences from scores on IQ tests to some native inherent trait. Many persons think of intelligence as a discrete dimension existing within the individual and believe that different people have different amounts of it. In a certain sense this is true, but one's intelligence is not a characteristic of a person so much as it is a characteristic of the person's behavior. We can only hope to measure or observe manifestations of it.

It is also not possible to add up the elements of someone's intelligence in the same way that you can count the number of fingers on his hand. Although two people can have the same IQ score, they may demonstrate quite different abilities by virtue of the fact that they succeeded on different parts of the test. All too often, undue weight is given to an IQ score, although numerical assignment of a child to a man-made concept, untied to real characteristics of the child, tells us very little. Even more unfortunate, parents and some

teachers are led to believe that the IQ concept has deeper significance than its meaning as a score.

Unquestioning faith in descriptive concepts reaches the height of absurdity in the notion of overachievers —a word used to describe children whose classroom performance is higher than their IQ scores would predict. The concept makes no sense at all because it says, in effect, that although these children are achieving, they do not have the ability to do so. Their success is laid to other factors, such as motivation. It's like telling the child who had the highest batting average in the Little League that, on the basis of batting practice, he's really a very poor hitter. He only did it because he wanted to.

The danger in a meaningless concept like over-achieving is that children so designated may not receive as positive a recommendation for college as other children with the same grades but higher IQ scores. Few stop to consider that the methods used to judge ability must have been inadequate and that terms like IQ, MA, and overachievement are man-made.

In view of all the drawbacks, one might reasonably ask, then, why do we continue using mental tests? Even though many have argued for abandoning them, most psychologists still feel that they have value. In most cases, we can describe, evaluate, and even predict certain kinds of behavior much better with tests than without them. The paradox exists that most psychologists, who were responsible for the tests, have never given them as much weight as those in schools and industries who use and misuse them.

While various practical problems were being confronted, the academic world of psychology was still trying to resolve many basic issues about intelligence testing. One of these, the focus of several decades of research, concerned the whole heredity-environment controversy—the battle over nature versus nurture.

Not all psychologists in America were convinced that the IQ was the highly predictive, hereditarily determined measure it was held to be by Goddard and his followers. It wasn't long before studies were reported which demonstrated that not only was the IQ not fixed but that it could be altered with training, experience, and changes in adjustment patterns.

Although research was reported from all over the nation to support one or the other position, two distinct battle camps could be located. One group, at the University of Iowa, came to be known as the environmentalists. The other, at Stanford University, supported the significance of heredity. After a while, it seemed as if the heredity-environment controversy had settled down into a comfortable compromise: Most people were content to accept the notion that the IQ is the result of the interaction between the gene structure and the environment.

Everyone knew that the argument was not settled, however, probably because people were asking the wrong kinds of questions. Instead of asking how *much* is contributed by heredity and environment respectively, they should have been asking *how* each makes its particular contributions.

For example, in our present state of knowledge, nothing will enable a child who is born deaf to hear. How differences in environment can affect his future development, however, is a terribly significant factor: With appropriate educational procedures he can develop into a literate, communicating adult; without them, he can remain illiterate and uncommunicative. Concentrating on heredity versus environment obscures the more important problem of determining how education can help each child best use what he has at his disposal.

In recent years, the black community has become more and more vociferous in its objections to the mental test as being biased against them. The outcry has been especially strong against group testing because these tests depend almost entirely on the child's ability to read. Since the child has to read the questions in order to answer them, blacks question whether the test measures capacity to learn or ability to read. They also argue that IQ tests are self-fulfilling predictions. A child with a low IQ score is placed in slow learning classes, where he learns less, thereby supporting the original score. Prompted by such arguments, many major school systems abandoned group intelligence testing. Individual tests like the Stanford-Binet and the Wechsler Scales are less subject to criticism, since, hopefully, the trained psychologist ensures that the test is administered properly under an optimum testing climate, and is able to evaluate better to what extent a given child's performance is influenced by emotional, motivational, educational, and socioeconomic factors.

Some people have suggested that we discard the IQ test entirely and substitute for it a battery of achievement tests. The problem is that since the achievement test is a sampling of what a child has learned, usually in specific academic subjects, the achievement battery does not provide much information about general learning skills. Others have looked to new methods of measurement which could meet the limitations and criticisms posed by our current models.

One such method has been developed by John Ertl at the University of Ottawa. Dr. Ertl records the brain response to a flashing light by placing electrodes on the motor cortex. By averaging the responses, which are recorded on a computer so as to eliminate noise, he arrives at a score, known as the *evoked potential*, which he claims is a culture-free index of intellectual functioning.

Several drawbacks can be cited to Ertl's approach. For one thing, he has no strong theoretical rationale to support his hypothesis that more intelligent people respond faster to stimulation than do less intelligent ones. The results he reports may be explained, not by the greater (or lesser) strength of the brain, but by the fact that

(*Continued on page* 65)

Buying Term Papers

□ **One morning last semester, we interviewed the** young manager of a firm that sells term papers, a company located in a university town in the Northeast. This entrepreneur explained his operation matter-of-factly.

Business was good he said. The company prepares research materials for students, professors, businessmen, and anyone else who requests information. It has a résumé service, a telecopying service, a photocopying service.

Graduate and undergraduate students account for the bulk of the business—and "basically the company is providing them a timesaving service," he noted. "Say somebody is working on a doctoral thesis. He spends 80 to 85 percent of his time just digging up material in the library and the other 15 percent writing the thesis. All we do is search out the information for him and put it down on paper. We're not really writing the paper; we're just providing a shortcut," he elaborated.

Customers normally wait from seven to 14 days for their orders. If the topic is already on file, the company charges from $2 to $7.50 a page. (This firm subscribes to a service with hundreds of term paper topics on file—a central organization that other term paper firms also use.) For new research, the cost might be $10 or $15 a page. A doctoral thesis could run into thousands of dollars and wouldn't necessarily be sold by the page.

What about staff? The manager was the only full-time person. Everyone else was part-time. The writers contract to work on an independent basis as freelancers. Most have done graduate work or have master's degrees, and they usually prepare papers in the field in which they have their degree or a related one. A writer can make from $2 a page and up. "I've heard of some people making $15 a page for certain types of research," the manager added.

We asked him to comment on the situation at Harvard, where a professor had received the same paper from an undergraduate and an extension student—a paper they had both purchased from a term paper company.

"That's basically the students' fault," he replied. "They know the materials are for research purposes only. They lack intelligence if they turn in the work as their own. Maybe they shouldn't be in college.

"Of course, I'm not even sure those papers were our papers. We have a system of checks and balances. We know where every paper has been, and we won't sell a paper to a student who goes to a school where the paper's been before. It's one of the ways we try to avoid plagiarism."

Finally, tongue in cheek, we inquired, "Would you prepare our *Today's Education* article on selling term papers?"

"Absolutely not. I have already given free of charge the research aids you need for the job," he flatly stated.

Term paper companies are located all over the country—Bangor, Maine; Boston; Washington, DC; Coral Gables, Florida; Chicago; Columbia, Missouri; Dallas; and Los Angeles.

In an informal survey, *Today's Education* mailed questionnaires to 212 college and university officials throughout the nation to get some feedback on where the companies are located, the frequency of their use by students, and what institutions of higher education are doing about the term paper companies and their products.

One hundred officials from colleges and universities in 44 states and the District of Columbia replied. Of these, 24 knew of a company in their area which sells research papers, and 10 knew of students on their campuses who had purchased such reports. Forty-eight reported that their schools had policies concerning students' buying papers to fulfill course and/or degree requirements; individual professors in 23 schools had developed practices to circumvent or handle the possibility of students' purchasing term papers; and one school had taken legal action in a case in which a student had purchased a paper.

In response to a section of the questionnaire devoted to opinion on the buying of term papers, almost every respondent damned the practice. Comments ranged from "a flagrant violation of academic honesty" to "detrimental to the student, the institution, and education as a whole" to "a practice that is killing the educational and research value of student preparation of papers."

In our interviews with more than a score of college and university professors and students from all parts of the country, we could find no one who admitted that he had bought a paper from one of the companies or who knew of someone who had. Yet, two professors pointed out that the companies aren't really new. One Columbia graduate recalled the term-paper mills along Amsterdam Avenue in New York City in the twenties, businesses that bought and sold used papers. Another spoke of the similar establishments near Harvard in the early forties—companies which were only whispered of and which, for the most part, only the affluent could afford to frequent.

Everyone we interviewed mentioned the bootlegging methods that collegians have used for years to get papers. For example:

• The fraternity and sorority files. In a syndicated column last year, John P. Roche reported an incident that occurred in 1947 when he was teaching at Cornell with Clinton Rossiter, the late historian. As an undergraduate at Cornell, Professor Rossiter had taken a course on the Presidency, written an A+ term paper, and turned it over to his fraternity files. In 1947, a student submitted that same paper to Rossiter for his course on the Presidency. "This unlucky 'brother' flunked flat," notes Dr. Roche.

• The giveaway. A professor at a New Jersey college recalled an episode from her teaching days at Adelphi University in New York. One of her colleagues confronted a coed with a paper the hapless girl had turned in—one that had been copied from a book by her fiancé, a student at another school. Indignant, the girl broke her engagement over the affair. She refused to marry a man who had given her a plagiarized paper. She flunked the course, too.

• The small businessman. One professor reminisced about one of her classmates at a junior college in Missouri. The classmate, an excellent creative writer, went into business for herself writing term papers. But with a passion. She analyzed a client's previous papers for his writing style and characteristic spelling and grammar errors. Then she produced a paper the buyer might have written—one that was slightly improved over his previous work, say a C- paper rather than a D one. However, this young entrepreneur's business was so successful that she just didn't have the time to prepare her own papers—and flunked out of school.

Plagiarism is old hat. But commercialization of the practice on a large scale is not. Why the rise of term paper companies within the past several years?

Arthur P. Davis of Howard University in Washington, DC, who has been teaching in colleges and universities since 1929, condemns plagiarism and says the rise of term paper companies is symptomatic of the moral breakdown in our society in all areas. He states that young people have noticed that nobody seems to care much about the rules of the game anymore and so they reason: "What's the use of knocking myself out to do research when I can pay someone who can probably do a better job than I can to do it? I'll buy a paper and forget about the consequences."

Joyce Cook, who also teaches at Howard, believes that buying term papers indicates anti-establishment sentiment. "Young people who do not approve of the values of their parents' generation can indicate disapproval by buying a paper instead of preparing it themselves," she notes. "Students who buy papers are making fun of the whole idea of an earned degree and are repudiating their parents' emphasis on the degree."

In an article in *The Hopkins News-Letter*, the undergraduate newspaper at Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore, a student writer unwittingly underscored Dr. Cook's opinion in answering the question, Can a college degree be bought?

> People who ask such a question invariably have no college experience and therefore believe that a college education is valuable. . . . We [the students] smoke dope for four years and then earn $25,000 a year in high-paying professions. The college degree was purchased for us at birth. . . . Thanks to our intelligent parents who bought us books and helped us with our homework, it was inconceivable that we wouldn't go to college. Exactly *which* college we went to became a matter of luck, money, and, in some cases, brains. But no matter where we wanted to go, our basic aim was a degree. And buying a term paper is just a part of the long and dishonorable tradition of getting a degree.

Robert Kaplan of the College of Education at Ohio State University in Columbus points to three factors that have contributed to the rise of term paper companies. First, the affluence of today's students. A few years ago students couldn't afford to pay several dollars a page to have their papers written. Today many can. Second, students are probably under greater pressure nowadays than in the past. Many are asked to do more work per credit hour than they were 20 years ago, and large numbers are carrying heavy course loads in order to graduate early or because they've switched majors and need to make up required courses. Third, our society seems to have set a precedent for the practice of buying term papers and research reports.

"Ghost writing is an accepted practice," comments Dr. Kaplan. "The President of the United States or the president of a university might deliver a speech that was written by a member of his staff. Of course, the president in either case checks over the written remarks and may make changes in them, but basically the speech is prepared by someone else.

"If our society accepts the idea that ghosts can write speeches for those who are too busy to prepare them, students may rationalize that they, also, are too pressured to do all of their own work and may have their term papers ghosted."

Others point out that ghost-written speeches for public figures who are too busy to write their own represent the opinions of these people. The public is not interested in the public figure's speech-writing abilities but in his ideas. Students, on the other hand, prepare research reports and term papers as part of the learning process—to demonstrate they can research, organize, and write a paper.

Almost everywhere we turned, someone pointed to other "precedents."

What's the difference between buying a term paper and doing what one of our professors is doing? asked a senior at a California college. The professor, claimed this young man, has compiled his students' term papers into a book, which is now selling for $6 a copy. In the Introduction, the professor extends his appreciation to his class, but none of their names appear on their work. "If he's justified in doing that, then Joe Student is justified in purchasing a term paper," argues the senior.

What's the difference between buying a term paper

and using Encyclopaedia Britannica Research Reports? questioned a professor from Indiana University at Bloomington. Buyers of the Encyclopaedia receive 100 coupons, which can be used to obtain reports from a catalog listing of 10,000 topics.

A spokesman for Britannica says there's a big difference between buying a term paper and using Britannica Research Reports. He says a single report consists of excerpts from documented sources and a bibliography. It's form is not at all like that of a term paper.

What the difference between buying a term paper and using "Cliff's Notes" or "Monarch Literature Notes"? questioned a freshman at Newark State College in Union, New Jersey. These series contain descriptions and analyses of great works of literature and their authors. Titles include *Fathers and Sons, Jane Eyre,* and *The Scarlet Letter.* In "A Note to the Reader," the publisher of "Cliff's Notes" admonishes: "The notes are not a substitute for the text itself or for the classroom discussion of the text, and the student who so attempts to use them is denying himself the very education that he is presumably giving his most vital years to achieve."

Authors of both series include professors from colleges and universities all over the country. (When we browsed through "Cliff's Notes" and "Monarch Notes" at the Discount Book Shop in Washington, DC, one clerk noted that the store had had a run on *Sister Carrie* only a few weeks ago and that Restoration drama was "hot" that day.)

The question, What's the difference? may be academic a year from now. As this article is being written, society is cracking down on term paper companies all over the country.

- The editor of *The Review,* the undergraduate newspaper of the University of Delaware in Newark, announced in an editorial earlier this year that the paper would no longer accept ads from these companies. A number of other college and university papers have adopted similar bans.
- This summer, California enacted a law which makes it illegal to sell term papers to be submitted for credit in institutions of higher education. The general counsel of the California State Colleges assisted in the preparation of the law.
- In June, New York Attorney General Louis J. Lefkowitz won a suit that put a Manhattan-based term paper company permanently out of business.
- Last spring, a Columbus, Ohio, judge issued an injunction forbidding two term paper companies from selling papers to students at Ohio State. During the hearing, the customer list of one of the companies was introduced into evidence and made part of the public record, thereby becoming available to University officials.
- Faculty of the Department of History at Kent State University in Ohio unanimously passed a resolution in which they stated their wish "to make it absolutely clear that the submission of a paper prepared in full or in part by anyone other than the student who submits it constitutes plagiarism." The resolution also states that a student who submits such a paper will receive an F for the course and his name will be reported to the dean of the college.
- In June, the University of Wisconsin, Madison, held up the grades, transcripts, and degrees of about 600 students alleged to have bought either term papers or answers to take-home exams and to have turned them in to fulfill course requirements. The University administration received the names of students from the Wisconsin Attorney General after he had subpoenaed the records of two Madison term paper companies.

But William Banner, associate dean of the College of Liberal Arts at Howard University, points out that punishing students and term paper companies is not enough. The university must look at itself. "Although university teachers are not culpable in the sense that the term paper buyer or seller is, they are responsible to a degree for the rise of the companies," Dr. Banner says. "They have pushed graduate work down to the undergraduate level, and the undergraduate who is incapable of doing many of these assignments is tempted to resort to plagiarism."

Dr. Banner (and most other professors we talked to) recommends that instructors teaching undergraduates stop assigning pseudo-research papers and start giving assignments they can supervise.

In an article in the March 1972 issue of *Social Education,* Elizabeth L. Gillespie and Miriam Schwartz present a checklist instructors should keep in mind when assigning research type activities. Some of their suggestions include: aim for assignments that mean something to students, keep topics small and manageable, have topic approval contingent on availability of good sources, have periodic checks on student progress, choose assignment due dates with care, and set guidelines on typing and editing acknowledgments for papers.

Most students would welcome changes of this sort in the assignment of papers, and many of the ones we interviewed see term papers as a valuable educational experience.

A university student in California explains, "I wouldn't buy a term paper because I don't like to cheat myself. Every time I write a paper, I learn something. If I spend 25 to 30 hours researching and writing a paper that's 25 or 30 hours worth of education I'm getting."

And a black student in an Eastern university agrees —with a black perspective. He says, "I think students, especially black students, need to do their own work. Black people need to reevaluate this society, and in order to do this, they have to have a clear, objective, and accurate understanding of what's happening in the society. They can't come up with solutions to the problems that confront the black race unless they have studied these problems themselves."

—ELIZABETH EINSIEDLER.

How To Get Straight A's

JOHN H. HOLLIFIELD, *editor, Center for Social Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore.*

□ **I've been in educational publishing for a long while,** and I'm well-known in the trade for my ability to spot a potential best seller. By best seller, I mean a book on education that will appeal to the general public as well as to educators.

My spotting ability was the reason I was at Prestigious U, attending a special press conference given by Theodore Large, who had graduated from the University earlier that day. During his four years at PU he had maintained a grade point average of 4.3 out of a possible 4.0.

When the reporters were seated, Theodore, a self-assured young man with a genial smile, strode to the podium. "Thank you for this honor," he began, his voice strong. "I'll make a few remarks and leave the rest of the allotted time for questions."

He paused for effect, looking out over the crowd.

"You are here," he continued quietly, "to report my academic accomplishments to the public. How, you ask, was it possible to maintain such high grades for four years at a university well-known for its high academic standards?"

Theodore let the question sink in. Then, in a low, serious voice, he answered: "Gentlemen, it was not easy. But I have, and have always had, a deep and abiding faith in the value of and the necessity for a strict grading system. While others deride grades, I believe that they reflect the measure of a man. In short, an A student is a better man than a C student.

"I will now take questions from the floor."

Many reporters stood, hands raised. Theodore pointed toward one in the front row.

"How did you manage to get a 4.3 average when 4.0 is the highest possible?" the reporter asked.

"Good question," Theodore acknowledged. "The key here, of course, is extra work. Turning in two A papers instead of one, for example. Next?"

Another newsman got the floor. "A paper that deserves an A+ in the eyes of one professor may be rated only a C by another. Yet you obviously didn't receive any C's. How do you account for that?"

"Selection, Sir," Theodore smiled. "When you are going after the good grade, it's vital to match the paper to the instructor."

"Could you explain your procedure for doing this?"

"I've simply spread my business among the various term paper outlets in the country. Let's say I had a paper due for Professor Hopspun. (The reporters murmured; even they knew Hopspun's reputation as the toughest grader at PU.) My first step would be to check previous papers which are on file. Then I would code all A papers according to the agencies that prepared them and would contract with the company that had written the majority of A papers for Hopspun. It's really quite simple.

"Too many college students today are willing to settle for average grades. They'll run to the first agency they think of and buy a paper. Well, I wouldn't settle for that."

A spontaneous round of applause erupted. I found myself applauding, too. (The book was taking shape in my mind. It would be a how-to-get-straight-A's handbook—with inspirational overtones. Big on the student market, big on the parent market. And teachers and professors would have to buy it to develop countermeasures.)

A reporter stood and asked, "Isn't this system of yours rather expensive?"

"Extremely," Theodore admitted. "And I want to state that I'm indebted to my parents for the generous allowance they supplied me. This allowed me to channel all my NDEA and academic scholarship funds toward term paper purchases. But it wasn't easy. Often I had to choose between a good meal and the purchase of an A rather than a B paper. I just wish other students could develop such an attitude."

Again a burst of applause. It was cut short by a question. "Mr. Large, it seems to me that you worked extremely hard to develop this system. Wouldn't it have been a whole lot easier to write your own papers?"

Theodore Large had an answer ready. "Perhaps I've given you the wrong impression. The fact is the whole system has been computerized. Some friends in computer science took care of that for me."

Murmurs of "brilliant" and "fantastic." Then, after the reporters asked a few more questions, the conference ended.

As Theodore left the podium, I introduced myself to him. I explained that I wanted him to write a book about his system and spelled out the advance he would get (which made his eyes light up).

He hesitated. "Write it myself?" he frowned.

"Oh, no! I'd have a member of my organization work with you and handle the actual writing," I assured him. "In the business, we call him a ghost."

Theodore sighed with relief. "Very well. But I want the best ghost in the business. If I'm going to write a book, I'm going to go all out to make it the finest of its kind. That's always been my philosophy, you know."

"I know," I nodded, thinking as I did so, Here is a young man whose college success was no fluke. Certainly he will go on to even greater successes. □

BERTRAM S. BROWN, M.D., *director, National Institute of Mental Health.*

"In loving or praising a child," Goethe said, "we love and praise not that which is, but that which we hope for."

Every child should have the chance to become emotionally and socially mature as well as to develop intellectually to his fullest capacity.

The classroom teacher can play a significant role in preventing emotional illness in children and in identifying early signs of its existence. A healthy classroom environment holds the potential for enhancing children's ability to develop humanness, skill in decision making, empathy with and concern for other people, self-understanding, and a sense of responsibility.

The teacher determines the nature of the daily classroom experiences. He assists children in developing constructive and satisfying lives and in dealing with daily stress in such a way that mild stress stimulates and challenges them and severe stress does not incapacitate them.

Much has been written and said, of late, depicting school as bleak, unattractive, and failure-oriented. There is, of course, some truth in the criticism, and few would argue with the need for some reform in today's educational system. But what critics do not always acknowledge is that most teachers really want to help children learn and grow and that most are doing the best they can in this area.

How can the teacher deal with the stresses and anxieties that impede the healthy development of too many of our children and that drain their physical and psychic energy, thus preventing them from devoting this energy to the task of learning?

First, he should remember that stress is not necessarily detrimental. Research shows that individuals must learn to meet and resolve stress in a constructive way in order to mature and grow. Education is, after all, a process of learning to deal with increasingly complex concepts and experiences.

But children have a limited ability to cope with anxiety and stress. In their short lives, they have not been able to develop the necessary skills, ideas, and attitudes for coping. When they are left to their own resources, stress easily overwhelms them and affects their schoolwork. Children who are burdened with anxieties and tensions are not free to learn.

Teachers must help children understand and cope constructively with the kinds of stress and frustration they encounter. For their part, teachers must be able to recognize the source as well as the nature of unhealthy stress behavior in the classroom and understand that children who engage in disruptive behavior are usually trying to cope with a stressful situation as best they can with their limited resources.

Every teacher is familiar with the youngster who talks out of turn or gets into fights frequently or persistently withdraws from participation in class activities or performs poorly on a test, although he seems to understand the work. A teacher's first reaction to some of this behavior may be to quash the offender, but he will probably eventually realize that the child who consistently talks out of turn may need special attention to compensate for a lack of it at home, that the one who rarely participates may be afraid of failing to meet the expectations of parents or teacher, and so on.

Children frequently use failure to learn as a protective mechanism against authority figures. They may use this as a weapon when they are deeply hurt but cannot or will not strike out aggressively.

Adolescents in particular feel the need to rebel against authority and assert their independence. These young persons must work to consolidate and establish their adult identity at the same time they are undergoing unpredictable mood changes precipitated by hormonal imbalance and by a great concern about appearance and peer acceptance.

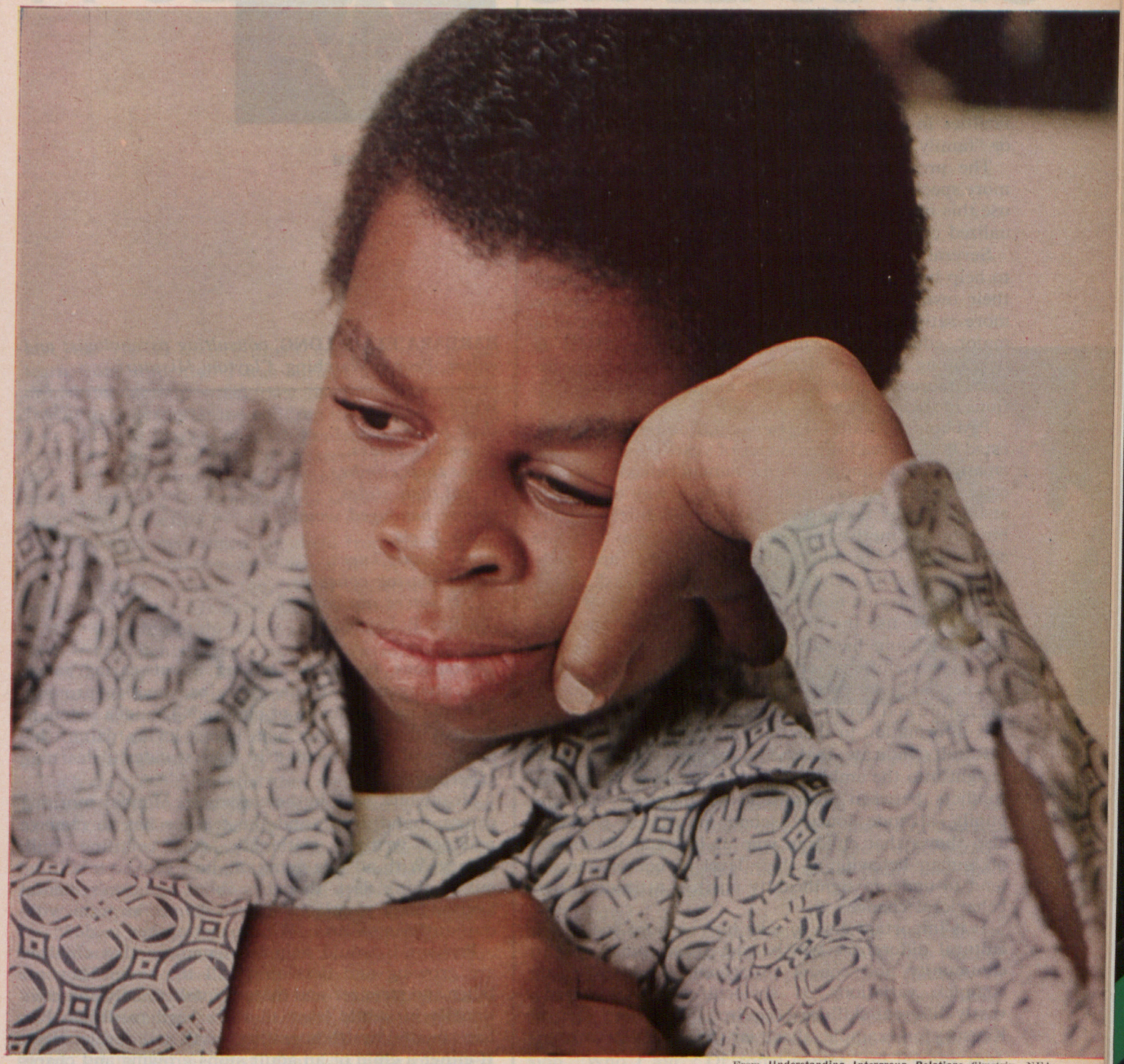
Sometimes the teacher contributes to the general level of stress in the classroom. Held accountable for the performance of students on standardized achievement tests and expected to handle a variety of subjects, he is hard put to create a relaxed and accepting atmosphere conducive to learning. In addition, his personal anxieties can affect his teaching style and the general classroom climate.

How can mental health professionals help teachers create a healthy learning environment and enhance the social and emotional development of children?

Here are a few examples.

A project at the University of California at Berkeley, funded by the National Institute of Mental Health and directed by Nadine Lambert, has been investigating stress in schools in an attempt to develop tech-

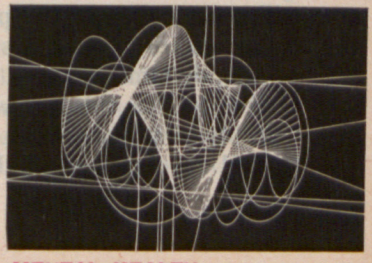
STRESS



From **Understanding Intergroup Relations** filmstrip, NEA.

The child's feeling of stress is not necessarily detrimental.

SPECIAL FEATURE



MENTAL HEALTH IN THE CLASSROOM

niques for alerting teachers to stressful situations and to provide them with appropriate intervention techniques. Preliminary findings indicate that most teachers have difficulty defining student problems in terms specific enough to suggest possible classroom solutions. For example, many teachers describe pupil difficulties in general terms, such as "poor motivation" or "family problems."

The project is attempting to help educators get more specific information about student problems and use this information in more appropriate and individualized classroom practice.

Several researchers are currently exploring ways to help both children and teachers better understand their own behavior and that of others and achieve more satisfying interpersonal relations. As part of a major education-information thrust, the NIMH is developing a packet of materials to help teachers become more familiar with the mental health implications of their work with children.

Psychologist Ralph H. Ojemann, who has been interested in this area for a number of years, has developed an approach to understanding human behavior that he calls the "causal orientation." It is a way of looking at behavior by taking into account the different combinations of motives and resources that may underlie any action. Using this method, the teacher approaching a classroom behavior problem would ask, What is the child trying to accomplish by his behavior? and Why did he use the method he did and not another?

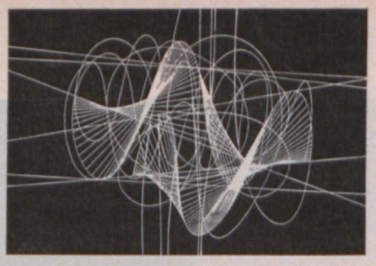
Dr. Ojemann has developed a Program of Education in Human Behavior and Potential designed to help teachers and students gain a deeper understanding of the nature and dynamics of human behavior and apply this information in their interactions with people.

Results indicate that as a teacher acquires more insight into the ambitions and concerns of his pupils, conflicts between them tend to decrease and the pupils' attitude toward school improves. Evidence also shows that children who understand the causes of human behavior at their level of comprehension tend to undergo significantly positive attitudinal and behavioral changes.

It is important also to take into account social and cultural differences which exist from community to community and school to school. Because of the complex variations of sociocultural backgrounds, vastly different skills are required of teachers in rural Kansas, for example, than, say, Spanish Harlem.

The NIMH is continuing to find information to help educators deal with classroom behavior and to develop materials that will provide insights into classroom group dynamics.

Teachers aren't psychotherapists and sometimes will need to turn for help to school psychologists, psychiatrists, or counselors. Nonetheless, an awareness of the dynamic nature of human behavior and an ability to use this knowledge in the classroom can help them enhance the social, emotional, and intellectual development of their students. □



MENTAL HEALTH IN THE CLASSROOM

BARBARA ELLIS LONG, *consulting psychologist and editor,* People Watching, *Clayton, Missouri.*

Will they tell you
their hurts
as well as prides,
share their climbs,
reveal their slides,
expose bandaged wounds,
say a, b, c's,
wash bloody knees,
really sharing concerns,
. . . if you're not caring?
—Roy P. Fairfield.

Someone is always talking about caring more, giving more, loving more as ways to promote the mental health of children. The idea seems to be that if the teacher acts like a loving parent, his pupils will all miraculously have wonderful learning experiences.

Meanwhile, back in the classroom, Monday morning comes round again, and the teacher has to manage reading, writing, arithmetic—and counting milk money. With all this going on, how can he take time out to think deep thoughts about children's mental health? Most people can't even define the term without stuttering a little. What's the teacher to do?

Perhaps it would help to remember that children are growing and developing all the time. They get taller and stronger and mature intellectually and emotionally in subtle ways that are hard to define. Perhaps mental health is really growth and development. If either a child or an adult stops growing and changing, something has gone very wrong with his life. In such cases, observers speak of regression or immaturity or problems of development.

The process of personal growth depends upon a lot of learning about a lot of things, including our own behavior. The business of the child (or adult) is to learn more and more about how to be a fully developed human being.

Enter the teacher! He can provide support for that kind of learning.

Some sixth grade children explained all this to me

A CLIMATE FOR LEARNING

last year. (Never underestimate what the teacher can learn from students.) I was curious about why children often act up when they have a substitute, so I went to the experts: the children themselves. I asked four different classes of sixth graders in two school districts to help me with the answer. (These children had been participating in a study concerned with teacher training for a behavioral science curriculum that I was directing.)

Our discussions ranged far afield from the original question. The children gave me a lot of ideas and some answers because they could see that I really needed their help. (It never hurts to ask.)

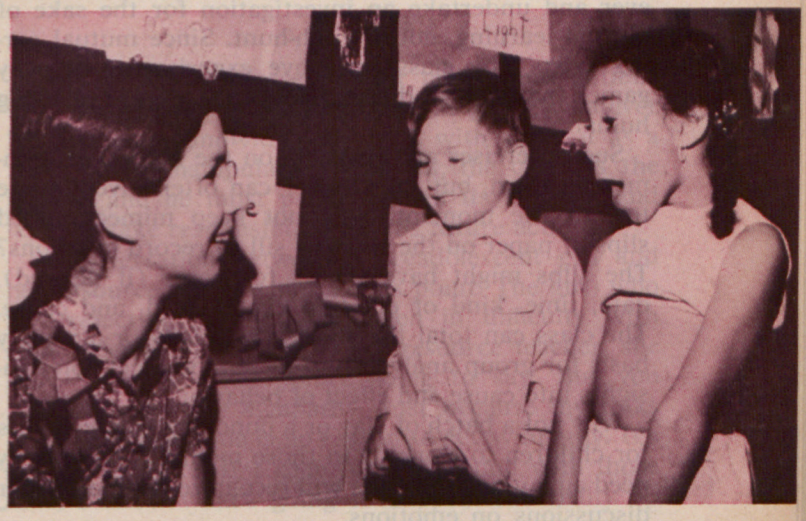
After some initial thrashing around and some pretty intense arguments, each class in turn told me that the first order of business for the students with any new teacher is learning about the teacher. They said that they could not possibly begin to study anything else until they had done that—and until the teacher had learned about them.

Each class explained that they were uncomfortable with a substitute or a new teacher because they had to find out about him before they could get down to the business of learning anything else. They had to be able to predict what the teacher would do. His teaching style and his degree of strictness or leniency were unimportant. The main thing was knowing the teacher and being relatively sure of how he operated. The acting up with a substitute was a way to test his limits in order to predict future behavior.

Then the children dropped the bombshell. They said that learning the teacher and being learned by him for the purpose of reasonable prediction of behavior led to mutual trust. That was what mattered to them—not technique, not books, not equipment—not anything but being able to trust each other. Then real learning can take place.

If the children couldn't learn the teacher—if he were too mysterious, opaque, or unpredictable—they simply would not have energy available for learning about geography or multiplication. They would be too busy using that energy to second-guess the teacher.

If those 140 children are right, and I think they probably are, they are telling us something profound about mental health and the teacher's role in its promotion in the classroom.



A successful climate for learning is one of mutual trust.

If the teacher wants children to learn to read or to be able to locate India on a map, maybe he'd better help them learn about him and each other first—assist them in refining their social radar and their people-predicting skills.

But how?

To establish an atmosphere of trust that can release energies for learning and for growth, the teacher must let students find out about him (indeed, to cooperate in their detective work) and help them find out more about one another, especially if they are new to each other. Why not a show-and-tell session, "Who I am"? Or some games and lessons that center on identity? [For further information and a list of sources, write: *Today's Education*, Department MH, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.]

The main idea is to surrender to the inevitable for the first few days of school and zero in on learning about one another. In geography class, students and teacher could point out on a map where they were born and where they have lived or have relatives; in creative writing, they could write autobiographies or even fantasy autobiographies, such as "Who I'd like to be someday" or "What I'd like to be in 20 years";

and in math, they might graph data involving vital statistics about the group—ages, heights, and so on. In the process, everyone will learn a little more about himself, others, and the group as a whole. Each child will also have moments in which he is personally important.

Once everyone is relatively clear on who is who, the teacher can get going with regular classwork. Also, since the group all know now that Johnnie is wild about motorcycles and Janie has a pet frog, these students can become class experts on these topics.

The class also knows that Gail has a quick temper and George holds grudges. These are just bits of information—not evil traits—because the group discovered these data together. So the class might get curious about anger or envy or stereotypes or whatever and undertake an investigation for the sake of mutual learning, not a witch-hunt. Since mutual caring exists, the class can have experiments or play games that lead to discussions of the nature of being human.

Such exercises are available on the market in commercial form, but the teacher can often invent some to suit the moment. Why not keep mimeographed slips of paper on the window sill to record emotions? The slips might have spaces for name (if desired), date, time, kind of emotion experienced, and cause. The class can total the sheets on a daily or a weekly basis for group analysis and by so doing get some insights into cause and effect of behavior.

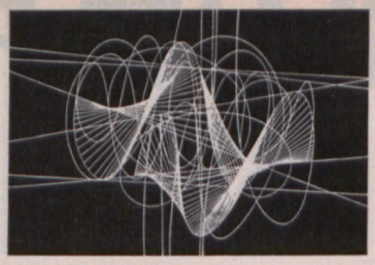
Why not a batch of clay or a punching bag or paints for children to work on in those moments when they need an outlet? The class will recognize this need after discussions on emotions.

To recapitulate briefly: The most successful climate for learning is one of mutual trust. The kids made that clear to me last year. They want to learn how to live, and that learning covers many areas, including the prediction and understanding of human behavior. The fear that the world is a mad, meaningless comic opera, with no room in it for them as people or for their rights or ideas, eats up children's strength for developing as full human beings. When their world and their selves have no meaning, when life is an absurd chance, children short-circuit and develop emotional problems.

Education has something to do with helping children make some sense of their environment and helping them form reasonable predictions of what will happen next. Then, they can divert their energies to some constructive projects of their own and to helping others live and grow.

The teacher can't remake the world or even the children in it, but he can do a great deal to help them learn that they do have value somewhere—for these people, in this classroom.

No one teacher can do it all alone. No one school can do it all alone. But each moment still has meaning—especially if it is a good moment. For a teacher, the buck stops right there. □



MENTAL HEALTH
IN THE CLASSROOM

WILLIAM C. MORSE, *professor of education and psychology, School of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.*

No one is surprised when new teachers list discipline as their number-one problem at school. But today many seasoned teachers echo the same thing, and some able teachers have left the profession to avoid the daily hassle. No one can expect fewer problems in the days ahead. Schools are facing reduced special services and the addition of special pupils to the "mainstream." Pupils are more demanding; peer power and group contagion make the teacher an adult minority of one.

Despite the mounting problems, there are schools where the teacher is still expected to deal with the whole gamut of behavioral problems and where asking for help is considered a sign of failure. There are other schools, however, which are providing teachers with expert help in emergency situations: a special resource teacher available in the school to provide crisis-intervention service for a pupil when his coping process begins to fall apart.

This specialist uses a problem-solving approach carried on in the context of how children grow and learn. He explores the child's self-concept, inner life, and the factors in his environment which influence behavior.

The significant new aspect in how the crisis-intervention specialist works is the fact that he capitalizes on the unique teaching opportunities which crisis events present. Rather than employing the common practice of waiting for the heat to subside, he takes advantage of the emotions that have surfaced to deal with real feelings.

At times of crisis, the pupil is searching a way out. (Johnny is angry when he comes to the resource teacher. He has had a confrontation with his English teacher. "Hate the old bag. She's a bitch." A junior high pupil who won't do his work shouts, "What's the use of studying social studies crap anyway?" Another complains, "It's always me who gets sent out. He lets the others get away with everything—but not me!")

THE CRISIS TEACHER

Many youngsters confess to feelings of futility, stupidity, and worthlessness. There are the fights to be worked out, the defiant, "You can't make me do nothin'" kids to deal with. ("Sure I stole it, but they are always stealing my stuff. So why not?")

Starting from the incident itself, the special resource teacher explores with the child to find the reason for the incident. The underlying idea is to develop a joint analysis of the difficulty, seek out the essential meaning of what happened and explore implications, and then search for specific solutions which the pupil understands and which are feasible. ("Is Mr. X always this way?" "What about other teachers?" "How long has school been like this?" "How are things with you in general?" "What do you think should be done about what happened today?")

Of course the specialist cannot solve all problems by any means. Sometimes even a minor mitigation is impossible at the moment. But steps in a plan aimed at the future is the intent.

The solution may involve more extensive work with the pupil to clarify his values, three-way conversations with the classroom teacher to work out strategies, including the parents in nonpejorative discussions about the problem and its solution, remedial assistance, or perhaps a program of behavior modification. If the child's problem seems to stem from learning difficulties, the crisis teacher may refer him for more complete psychological study of the nature of his difficulties. If certain of the behaviors of the classroom teacher appear to have provoked part of the problem or if absurd school rules or outdated curriculum are a factor, the crisis teacher tries to influence the school milieu through consultation, staff discussion, and the like.

In some cases, one session with the special teacher may clear up the problem; in others, the student may need this kind of help over a period of years during his school career. In either case, the adult-pupil relationship is one of interaction and interrelatedness. Most definitely, the crisis teacher avoids child worship or fear of "the little monster"—current polarized attitudes in dealing with children.

One condition is essential for crisis intervention: The special teacher must respect the pupil, whatever his age, as an individual to work with and not as a robot to be manipulated. After all, the crisis is the pupil's, and he must participate in its solution and learn to take responsibility for his future actions.

A conversation between a preadolescent girl and her resource teacher makes this point. The girl, who had rejecting parents, had been in difficulty with some friends. In talking to her resource teacher, she said, "I know what you're going to say. But you shouldn't give me sympathy. Just because my folks don't care about me is no reason to get sympathy. It's my life to make. If I keep fooling around with those kids, I know what's going to happen. It's really up to me."

When the teacher listens carefully to youngsters, he is less likely to underestimate their capacity to assume responsibility.

The elementary school, with a small and integrated staff, facilitates the crisis teacher model, but there is a great need for help in the more complex junior high. One of the most effective crisis programs at this difficult age level works as follows: In this program, the regular teacher first does all he possibly can to deal with a problem situation in the classroom, without anger or hostility. The reason he can respond without rancor to a disturbing pupil is because both know that if they are not able to work things out, the crisis resource teacher is available to them.

The counselors and principal in this school have formed an assisting team to work with the crisis teacher. The total school program is based on concern for the pupil. The service cannot be meaningful if it is merely an oasis in a desert.

In this particular school, the resource teacher's facilities include space for several pupils to work independently, a place for private conversations, and a corner with comfortable furniture for relaxing. Remedial teaching resources, books, educational and fun games, and individualized mechanical teaching aids are available.

Crisis rooms tend to take on the characteristic mode of the special resource teacher. Some are businesslike; others resemble art studios; and still others are veritable zoos where hamsters, guinea pigs, and other animals provide a ready and natural means of contact with youngsters.

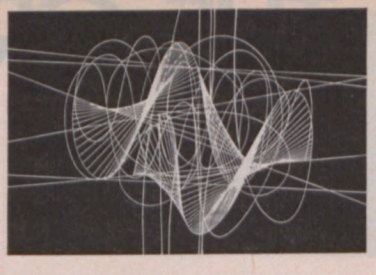
But more important than the physical setting of the room is its psychological climate. The crisis-intervention service is one in which children do not have to be categorized as particular special-education types to get help. The crisis teacher has been trained to respond to feelings so that the child can express his honest emotions. The teacher knows how to interact with pupils and to deal with their feelings.

Since many problems in school are a consequence of the student's inability to cope with learning tasks, the special teacher must have the teaching skills and appropriate materials to deal with learning problems. Since a problem child is a whole person, whose feelings and academic concerns mesh, the key to success in dealing with him lies in prescriptive planning that keeps his whole complex nature in mind.

An example of a special resource teacher at work illustrates how he takes the whole child into account. A math teacher sent a disruptive pupil to the helping teacher. This pupil was a black child who attended a predominantly white school. When the helping teacher and the pupil were talking freely, the boy asked, "Why should I learn math? What good is that crap? No one would hire a nigger anyway." After the first meeting, the resource teacher arranged other sessions with the pupil and then took him to visit a very capable black lab technician. Soon the youngster began to feel more like doing his arithmetic. His problem was not that he was lazy or "bad" but that he lacked confidence and hope. And the concrete example meant something which moralizing lectures never could.

The crisis teacher is one member of the teaching team, and it is essential that the classroom teacher, the crisis teacher, and the pupil maximize their communication. In fact, times may arise when the crisis teacher takes over the classroom so that the regular teacher can work out a crisis with a pupil. Also, the crisis teacher is the facilitator of a service and cannot expect to do the job alone. Many engage the help of other students for cross-age tutoring, provide big brothers and big sisters for problem pupils, work with parents to coordinate the efforts of college students and lay volunteers, and utilize community resources and referral agencies.

No approach is a panacea. But the special resource person is a new tool for a school that operates with a mental health orientation. Of course, the service in any school is no better than the human beings who run the program and who make up the teaching staff. The main advantage of this program is its design, which attends to the press of the school and at the same time directs energy toward helping pupils with their emotional development — an area long neglected by too many schools. □



MENTAL HEALTH IN THE CLASSROOM

Staff of the Center for Studies of Child and Family Mental Health, *National Institute of Mental Health.*

In the winter 1972 issue of *Mental Hygiene,* **Daniel G.** Brown discusses behavior modification and behavior therapy. A consultant with the Phoenix (Arizona) Area Indian Health Service, Mental Health Branch, Dr. Brown says this new kind of therapy, called variously behavior therapy, operant-conditioning therapy, or reinforcement therapy, has many promising applications for the teacher in the classroom as well as for parents in the home.

Basically, behavior therapy involves strengthening desirable behavior and weakening or removing undesirable behavior in human beings by the systematic use of learning theory and principles of conditioning.

A major part of behavior modification involves changing conditions that have maintained a child's maladaptive behavior. The theory of reinforcement learning holds that both desirable and undesirable behavior are learned or unlearned by the same process.

Efforts to modify behavior follow two major paths: (a) developing, accelerating, or maintaining desirable behaviors, and (b) weakening, decelerating, or eliminating undesirable behaviors.

In his article, Dr. Brown points out that undesirable behaviors may be reduced or eliminated through the use of such consequences as: positive reinforcement (reward) for the nonoccurrence of the undesirable behavior; negative reinforcement (e.g., punishment or isolation) for the occurrence of the undesirable behavior; or no reinforcement of any kind for the occurrence of the undesirable behavior (e.g., complete ignoring of such behavior).

In contrast to the traditional view that maladaptive behaviors are "symptoms" and surface manifestations of underlying emotional disturbances, the behavior-modification approach assumes that such behaviors are simply learned ways of adjusting to the environment—that these behaviors are determined by the consequences that follow them. While the traditional mental health professional seeks to uncover and deal with the original causes of undesirable behaviors and the individual's emotional response to them, the behavior therapist concentrates on altering environmental conditions and the present consequences of such behaviors and "symptoms" themselves which constitute the so-called disorders.

What are the classroom applications of behavior modification? How can the teacher usefully and appropriately apply principles of this therapeutic, edu-

BEHAVIOR MODIFICATION

cational approach in the classroom?

The following eight basic principles of behavior modification can apply to the classroom situation:

● Behavior is learned when it is consistently reinforced.

The teacher can reinforce an adaptive behavior. For example, when the teacher consistently thanks a child for assisting in distributing reading books, the teacher reinforces the child's helping behavior.

The teacher can decelerate a maladaptive behavior. Whenever Tim, who is a first grader, bites or hits his classmates, his teacher calmly restricts him for a short time in the time-out alcove where he can receive no social reinforcements, such as attention or encouragement from the other children.

The teacher can ignore maladaptive behavior. When a child curses in class, the teacher ignores the remark and calls on or walks over to a pupil who is behaving in a socially acceptable manner. Later, the teacher gives the offending child social reinforcement when he is behaving in an acceptable manner.

● The specific behavior that requires acceleration or deceleration must be identified and the child's strengths emphasized.

If a child does not seem to be functioning up to his potential, the teacher can define a reasonable improvement plan for him. For instance, slow readers can keep daily scores and earn a token reward for daily progress in reading speed and comprehension, which in turn can be redeemed for a larger reward later.

● Behavior-modification planning must initially anticipate small gains.

The teacher should reward each improvement the pupil makes at the beginning of the program until broader gains are within the child's grasp. For instance, the teacher can give a token reward to the pupil who has difficulty with long division as soon as he succeeds, let us say, in dividing the first digit correctly. As the pupil learns the process, the teacher can award tokens only for completely correct quotients.

● The consequences of behavior must be meaningful to the student.

In the case of adolescents, the teacher may use such reinforcements as leisure time or social room privileges. For instance, a failing eleventh grader improved his attitude toward school when the teacher permitted him to go to the social room after he satisfactorily completed each assignment.

● Consequences, rewards, or punishments must follow the behavior immediately.

The child who clowns in the classroom is reinforced when his peers giggle at his antics. To combat this, the teacher can send him to a quiet corner with his work as soon as he starts this behavior. However, when the child is working productively, she can reinforce him quickly with a pat on the shoulder, a token, or verbal support.

Many teachers plan activities that permit a child with particular interests to win peer approval. When the teacher recognized that Susan seemed withdrawn for several weeks, he capitalized on her artistic ability and gave her major responsibility for an art show. At the culmination of the activity, Susan stood beaming in the center of the young artists.

● Reinforcements may be physical or social. The type varies with the child's age and needs, the situation, and the teacher's plan. Many teachers have found that rewarding a child with a token of varying value can change a habit. Others use praise.

● Purposes and goals should be clear.

If possible, student and teacher should agree together upon a target behavior and confer on progress toward the goal. When the teacher reproached Jim about pushing other children on the playground, the boy agreed to maintain a chart on his pushing behavior. At appointed times, he and his teacher met to check on the chart. The ultimate reward for Jim's overcoming this behavior was a field trip.

● In each instance, the target behavior should be the best one for the particular student. The aim of behavior control should be self-control.

Behavior modification used to manipulate student behavior has potential for benefiting the teacher rather than the student. (Does Miss Jones modify Paul's noisy behavior to promote Paul's well-being or to relieve her daily headache? It is important that the teacher use behavior modification legitimately for changing Paul's behavior in order to help him resolve his own problems—while often benefiting the teacher as well.)

The application of behavior-modification methodology in the classroom is proving feasible, although many experts [including Dr. Morse, author of the preceding article] hold that, to respect the self, intervention should be related to the nature of the cause of given behavior. Teachers who wish additional information on the subject may write for the 1971 booklet, *Behavior Modification in Child and School Mental Health, An Annotated Bibliography on Applications with Parents and Teachers*, published by the National Institute of Mental Health. (Order from Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402. Price is 30¢.) □

LET'S BE CREATIVE: SANDPAPER PRINTING

Drawing on sandpaper (reduced)

Final image on white paper

This is one of a series of articles on creative art activities that elementary school teachers without special expertise can use with their pupils. The National Art Education Association, an NEA national affiliate, has cooperated in the preparation of this series.

Sandpaper printing is an exciting experience for any child, but it is particularly helpful to the upper elementary school boy or girl who is difficult to motivate in art.

The materials needed for such printing are easy to find: sandpaper about 9 by 10 inches in any grain except coarse, ordinary crayons, almost any white paper for printing, an iron, and something with which to mount or mat the finished product.

Ask students to draw a picture on the rough side of the sandpaper and to repeat the shapes they create. Discourage them from drawing subtle landscapes and highly detailed subjects. Forms should be strong and free of small detail. Instruct students to apply the crayon heavily, to use intense colors, and to repeat most of the colors they use.

After the sandpaper is colored, it is laid with sandy side up, and a white piece of paper is put on top of it. Then the white paper is ironed. As the crayon melts, the image (which will be the same size) will transfer to the paper. Results are almost always vivid and pleasing.

—Virginia Birchfield Walker, *art specialist, Cedar Grove (West Virginia) Community School.*

(Next month, Mrs. Walker will discuss how to teach batik printing in an elementary classroom.)

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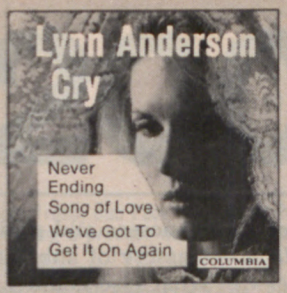

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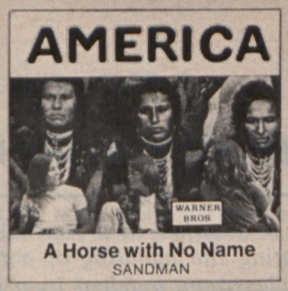

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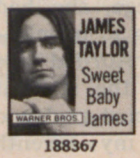

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CLASSROOM INCIDENT

This is another in a Journal *series presenting the handling of a troublesome classroom incident by a teacher and analyses by teachers or other consultants whose training and/or experience may enable them to contribute illuminating insights. This month, a student NEA member also presents a reaction.*

I still cringe when I think back on the year Laura Grayson (not her real name) was assigned to me as a student teacher.

Although she was an outstanding student in the Mathematics Department of a nearby college, she had great difficulty in relating to people—young and old. She returned the smiles and greetings of the staff at our junior high with a curt nod and completely turned off my seventh grade math students with humorless lectures and grim admonitions.

I counseled Laura about how she might work more effectively with students, pointing out that youngsters—especially junior highs—welcome warmth and humor as well as facts and figures from their teachers. But my counseling fell on deaf ears. Laura said that a "cream puff" approach to teaching was just not possible for her and that she would have "to work out her own destiny."

Frustrated and somewhat angry, I turned to her college supervisor and the assistant principal for advice on how to help Laura with her difficulties. However, they both dismissed the problem saying in effect, "Laura has an excellent academic record. She'll improve with experience in the classroom."

But she didn't.

By the end of her student-teaching period, almost all of my seventh graders disliked her *and* math with equal intensity. When I prepared my final evaluation of Laura's student-teaching performance, I was at my wit's end. I didn't see how I could fail her, remembering the college supervisor's and the assistant principal's words. Yet, my heart sank when I thought about the youngsters who would be in her classes in future years.

In the end, I opted for a lukewarm appraisal, gently pointing up her weaknesses and praising her strength—mastery of subject matter.

What else could I or should I have done?

Consultants' Comments

To open Laura's "deaf ears," I would have gotten specific feedback from the students by means of a formal evaluation instrument. Many good evaluation instruments are available and should be used at least once during the student-teaching period.

The supervising teacher was correct to solicit the advice of the vice-principal and the college supervisor in working with Laura's problems, but he should have had more confidence in his own ability to evaluate. After all, Laura was working in his classroom with his students and with him on a daily basis.

I feel any would-be teacher who turns off others, especially students, should not end up in the classroom. In the written evaluation, I would have praised Laura's mastery of subject matter and made a strong statement recommending that she reassess her goals and pointing to her lack of success in student teaching as an indication that she would require careful supervision.

—Kelvin L. Schuchart, *economics teacher, Cedar Falls (Iowa) High School.*

Evaluating a preprofessional's teaching is a most difficult challenge. However, this is the realm in which the profession has the opportunity to make giant strides toward achieving self-governance. It is time to start seriously looking at who enters and remains in the teaching profession.

Laura is a good case in point. If she ranked low in the math teacher's opinion, giving a lukewarm appraisal was not the solution. Since Laura wished "to work out her own destiny," she needed to know her supervising teacher's professional opinion. As a student headed for the same job market, I would not want anyone with an untrue evaluation competing with me.

Mastery of subject matter is essential in quality teaching, but it is far from the only factor. If a teacher cannot relate the subject to the child and make that subject a functioning part of the child's life, then he is wasting his time and the child's.

The teacher was correct in believing he should not be allowed to "fail her" on his own, but he should have made sure that his evaluation was recorded right next to Laura's self-evaluation and the evaluations of her college supervisor and the principal.

Also, the teacher might have suggested that Laura conduct a class attitude survey and permit his students to indicate, anonymously of course, their reactions to her methods, personality, and so on. Too frequently, this valuable tool is overlooked. For Laura, findings of such a survey might have provided the necessary stimulus for change.

—Tom Creighton, *president, Student NEA.*

The teacher's response was not helpful to the growth of the student teacher or fair to her future students. However, in a similar situation, I would probably react the same way. The problem here has the same causes as other educational problems: societal pressure, which produces a lack of confidence in our perceptions; a limited ability to consider alternatives; and a lack of courage to stick to our decisions.

The teacher didn't just imagine that the children were turned off. The fact that the supervisors considered other qualities as paramount shouldn't have caused him to change his perceptions, especially since he was the only person to see the student teacher in a classroom situation.

The teacher's response was all too typical. He made the obvious choice. We can more closely approximate a rational choice, one we feel comfortable with, if we make a point of considering the opposite alternatives to our initial choices. Choosing becomes easier if we can determine the extremes.

We worry more about how others perceive us than about how we perceive our role and responsibility. If we accept our perceptions and consider alternatives we should feel confident with our decisions.

—Michael R. Cohen, *associate professor of education, Indiana University-Purdue University at Indianapolis.*

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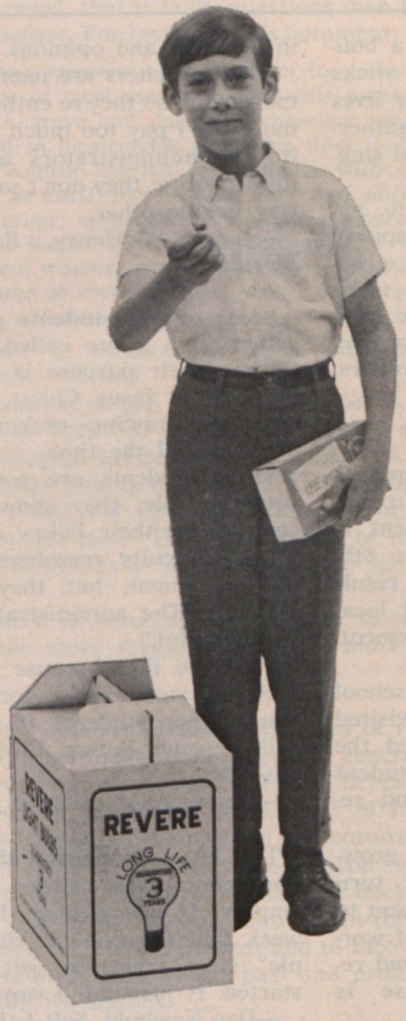

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YOUTH SPEAKS

Much has been written in recent months about the so-called Jesus Revolution. Recently, the editors of Today's Education *surveyed Future Teachers of America leaders across the country, asking them to report on what has happened in their high schools in regard to this movement. Here are excerpts from some of their replies. All the respondents are past or present state presidents or coordinators.*

The Jesus movement in our school began when students got together and held prayer meetings. Interest has fluctuated, depending on the mood of the students and the amount of publicity about meetings. In my opinion, most people join because it's the in thing to do.

I doubt that this revolution will influence much of anything. I think it will eventually die. But, then, apathy itself seems to be a movement. Participation in all clubs, events, and student government has dropped drastically at our school within the past several years.

—Carolyn Reisdorff, *Albuquerque.*

One group at my school is the first to try everything new—cars, drugs, and so on. When the recording, "Jesus Christ Superstar," was released, they brought it to school and promoted the ideas that the album expresses. But now I would say the movement is dead here. Interest has shifted to the use and sale of drugs.

I am convinced from visiting schools where a substantial Jesus Revolution is going on that some students are really sincere about what they are doing. I would like to think that the movement has some kind of lasting influence, but right now I see it as a passing fad.

—Elaine Smith, *Pilot Mountain, North Carolina.*

The Ballard County Jesus Revolution Committee came about after different churches sponsored youth activities publicized through the school. This group held countywide meetings for all youth, regardless of religious denomination. The movement grew from that one small committee.

Activities have ranged from a bonfire where participants burned sticks representing something in their lives they wanted to get rid of to gatherings which feature old-fashioned singing and testimonials.

Our administration seems to approve, though some teachers appear to be against it. I believe the movement has resulted in greater unity among students, less prejudice, and fewer expulsions. With some people, the movement will last; with others, it is only a fad.

—Vicki Ray, *Kevil, Kentucky.*

The Jesus movement encompasses approximately 10 percent of our student body (our total enrollment is 750). Some are sincere believers; others appear to be involved as a result of peer influence. While some local churches encourage the movement, others ignore it.

The movement began at our school when a student felt Satan visited him. (Another student observed the happening.) Then the first student realized his love for Jesus and renounced Satan.

The movement seems to be growing. However, those involved turn some people off because they seem to believe that only *their* variety of worship is correct and that organized religion in the traditional sense is wrong.

—Sue M. Evans, *Pennsville, New Jersey.*

How can I describe the Jesus Revolution? Many kids are involved, and the number is increasing. Jesus is a real thing to them, not just a man who lived 2,000 years ago but a living God and a way of life. Just recently our band director accepted Christ, and his whole attitude has changed so much that everyone in our schools has noticed it!

Involved students are noticeably happier and usually more sincere than others. They rarely have hassles or really big worries (so they say).

Jesus people are in every group on campus—radicals, red-necks, rah-rahs—there are no boundaries. It's funny how Christ can enable them to love one another despite vast differences in interests and opinions.

A few teachers are members of the movement, so they're enthusiastic, but most don't pay too much attention to it. The administrators act like administrators; they don't say much one way or the other.

—Karen McHenry, *Boca Raton, Florida.*

Some of our students gathered together in a group called Friends of Christ. Their purpose is the love of all men in Jesus Christ. The movement is growing—picking up new members all the time.

These students are good Catholic young people; they show a genuine concern for their fellow students.

Some faculty members object to the movement, but they are in a minority. The administration says it is "beautiful."

I believe that because students in this movement set a good example, many other students in our school will become better Christians and Catholics.

—Dennis A. Matreci, *St. Louis.*

The Jesus Revolution that touched our school was neither strong nor lengthy. It was evident for about a week that a group of "different people" were trying to get something started. It just didn't work.

—Dan Newbold, *Salt Lake City.*

About a dozen people are steadily involved in the Revolution at our school. And I am pleased to say that through these people and their meetings I have started to find God and what He means.

I really haven't talked to any of my teachers about this. However, I believe they would rather see students turning on with Christ than with drugs.

—Dan Killian, *Rock Springs, Wyoming.*

◆ *We hope more young people will send their views on schools, governmental leadership, teen-age problems, youth-adult relationships, or whatever else they feel strongly about. We need the help of teachers in calling their students' attention to this invitation.*

(*Continued from page* 33)

looking fresh for a while, they have already begun to wither and must eventually die. They die because they are severed from their sustaining roots. We are engaged in the frustrating attempt to keep alive the flower of America while separating ourselves from the roots which have produced America.

Every generation tends to believe that its circumstances are entirely novel, that it faces questions men have never confronted before. For instance, this comment:

> It is a gloomy moment in history. Not for many years—not in the lifetime of most men who read this paper—has there been so much grave and deep apprehension; never has the future seemed so incalculable as at this time. . . . In France the political caldron seethes and bubbles with uncertainty; Russia hangs as usual, like a cloud, dark and silent upon the horizon of Europe; while all the energies, resources, and influences of the British Empire are sorely tried. . . .
>
> It is a solemn moment, and no man can feel an indifference . . . in the issue of events. Of our own troubles no man can see the end.

That wasn't in yesterday's *Times* but in *Harper's Weekly*, October 10, 1857.

Even the generation gap is old hat. The Greek dramatist Menander, who lived 300 years before Christ, echoed the cry of his young generation when he wrote, "An old man is never welcome among the young." And Samuel Johnson was talking about the communication gap in the eighteenth century. He said, "The conversation of the old and the young ends generally with contempt or pity on either side."

Perhaps there is, after all, some truth to the French adage that the more things change, the more they stay the same.

The time has come to challenge the idea of radical discontinuity between this and all preceding generations and to say that our progress in the future will depend, in part, upon a respectful regard for the lessons of history.

As we seek to nourish the roots of our culture, we must not engage in ancestor worship or seek a romantic escape from the demands of the present. We look back in search of direction. It is an act of suicide to live in the past. But if we are to live fully in the present and to face the future with hope, we must look to the past and profit from its light and from its lessons.

It is precisely because the changes in our society have been so great, and because we do, indeed, face a new and uncertain future, that we so obviously need the guidance of the past. When the waters are uncertain and the winds most severe, the chart and compass are most needed. Never in our national life have we been more in need of the stability, the coolheadedness, and the sense of humor which are products only of the historical perspective. This troubled hour would be the worst of possible times to grow disdainful of history.

A sense of history prevents cultural amnesia and furnishes mankind with a memory. It also provides the overview which reminds us, as Henry Steele Commager says, "that time is indeed long and our own little life fleeting; that for thousands of years each generation has thought that it was the end and the object of history; that men have known crises before and wars and turmoils and triumph and tragedy and have survived; that those issues and problems which loom so large on our horizons may not even be visible on the larger horizon of history; and that the cloud-capp'd towers, the gorgeous palaces, the solemn temples, which to us seem the very wonders of the world, may dissolve and leave not a rack behind."

Because history gives this larger perspective, it softens

(*Continued on page* 64)

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(*Continued from page* 63)

our prejudices and teaches us modesty and humility, patience and tolerance, and gratitude. And perhaps most of all, it reminds us by a thousand, stirring examples that it is the individual who counts, that character counts, that while men may not be complete masters of their fate, neither must they be the helpless victims of fate. At every turn of the page, it is a Gandhi or a Churchill, a Jefferson or a Lincoln, a Mohammed or a Luther who makes the difference. It is by force of individual personality rather than blind chance or iron determinism that the universe moves.

Importantly for our time, a sense of history saves us from the illusion that by the sheer exercise of intense idealism we can suddenly cure every ill of society and usher in Utopia. When the postmortem on San Francisco State's worst riots was complete, Dr. Hayakawa says he was surprised to learn that students in the field of history had not participated in the disturbances in equal proportion to students from other social science fields. "I attribute this," he explains, "to the fact that the study of history had rendered them too realistic to fall for the easy, Utopian shibboleths."

Students who examine the hard facts of history know that instant progress does not come about by mere chanting and churning. As we see the long pull—the many faiths, the cultures, the parties and philosophies—we are delivered from this illusion that we have a special corner on truth, that our lives embody the grand purpose of all history and the will of God.

The cult of contemporaneity has had an impact upon the university curriculum itself. In some places, students forego the classics for courses in ecology, philosophy for ethnic studies, and literature for a new seminar in political activism. "Forget all the traditional, theoretical stuff," goes the argument, "and teach something that's relevant and practical." As important as ecology, ethnic studies, and political involvement are, if we permit mere relevance to prevail in our academic planning, we will cut ourselves off from the road map which shows where we have been and how we got there and where the dead-end alleys are.

More importantly, the basic clues to today's practical problems of peace, pollution, poverty, and prejudice lie hidden in the hard lessons of the past. As Robert Maynard Hutchins recently put it: "What is relevance? The fact that something is today taught in the multiversity in an irrelevant way does not necessarily mean that it could not and ought not to be taught relevantly. Is it possible that the best practical education is the most theoretical one? Is it possible in a world which is changing every day that the object might be to find out what is not changing?"

One of the driving convictions of my life is that, in all of recorded history, the basic human predicament has not changed. And this is the primary conclusion of Will Durant's incisive book, *The Lessons of History*.

The great technological advances of our time have probably deceived us into believing that our total life situation has changed. After all, it was Henry Ford, not Eldridge Cleaver, who first made the statement, "History is more or less bunk." Ford saw himself as a man of the future, a man of automation. Because he lived at the beginning of our age of technology, we can, perhaps, excuse him for believing that the shiny new machines were to change everything.

We have now lived with technology long enough to know that machines are causing some of our problems. We can ride around the world at 600 miles per hour in a jumbo jet, and yet we may be unsafe walking alone after dark in our own neighborhoods. We do a better job of controlling the machines than of controlling men.

It is an illusion to imagine that because we can put a man into orbit we have thereby altered his human nature. The men we have sent to the moon come back to face the ancient human problems: the need to love and be loved, the problems of avarice and selfishness, the quest for meaning in life. And they return to face the ancient specter of human death, with all that it implies.

Our chief challenge throughout the remainder of this century will not concern outer space but inner space. For this challenge, we have light from many ancient lamps to guide us. For example, Moses and Plato, Voltaire and Shakespeare, each looked deeply into the human situation and each has something to say to our world.

Recently I visited one of the infamous Nazi extermination camps, the one in Dachau, Germany, which is now a museum. I was shaken by the ghastly artifacts of death—the pictures and documents. I would have joined those who urge us to forget the past.

Then, approaching the exit, I saw posted on the stark stone wall separating the camp from civilization a quotation from George Santayana: "Those who cannot remember the past are condemned to repeat it." □

(*Continued from page* 43)

some people are better able to pay attention and to fixate on the light source. In addition, correlations with IQ, although significant, are low—as are correlations on retesting with the same subject. In view of all this, in my opinion, it is doubtful that Ertl's method can be of real use to the teacher, at least at this time.

Previous attempts had been made at developing culture-free scales. For example, an effort was made to remove the middle-class bias of IQ tests by changing the wording of questions and by introducing content more relevant to the lower-class child's background and life experiences.

The results were unsuccessful, and since the task of developing culture-free tests poses difficult problems, it seemed to make better sense to concentrate on improving the environment of the culturally deprived rather than on changing our tests.

As a result, many special programs were started that were designed to educate children from the lower socio-economic strata. In too many cases, these programs were established in an atmosphere of emergency, with little planning and with limited knowledge of what should constitute suitable curriculums for such classes. Professional educators were not too surprised, therefore, when these programs failed to raise the IQ of black children.

Using the failure of these programs and an impressive array of statistical data, Dr. Jensen shocked many educators when he proposed that the reason these programs failed can be traced to an hereditary inferiority in black children. The great fear this aroused in the minds of socially oriented psychologists and educators is that it might be possible, by misinterpretation, to obtain "proof" that no matter what compensatory education the black child receives, he remains inferior in intellect. Another possible interpretation is that the schools are not to blame if black children fail to achieve academically.

The IQ Argument: Race, Intelligence, and Education (Library Press. 1971), a recent publication by Hans J. Eysenck, a British psychologist, lends support to Jensen's position. Actually, there was nothing so new about Dr. Jensen's position; it's the old nature-nurture controversy in new clothes. It is a fact that blacks as a group score lower than whites as a group on intelligence tests. It is also a fact, however, as Jensen notes, that many blacks score higher than a very large number of whites. People concentrating on the main conclusions in

(*Continued on page* 66)

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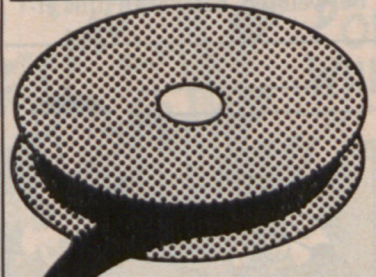

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(*Continued from page* 65)

the article tend to forget this.

I recently received a rather touching letter from a young black boy attending an Ivy League college. He wrote: "I was interested that the specific areas in which Jensen indicated blacks were inherently inferior are precisely those areas in which I scored highest in my class. Maybe it was luck." Even he had lost sight of the fact that the Jensen data refer to averages and not to individuals.

It is unfortunate that Jensen presented his material within the context of a racial issue, since the emotional impact of this tends to negate all of what he has to say. Despite its incendiary qualities, the Jensen paper has the major merit of reminding us that we are dealing with a biological organism and that the educational environment is only one of the many influences affecting the growth and development of a given individual.

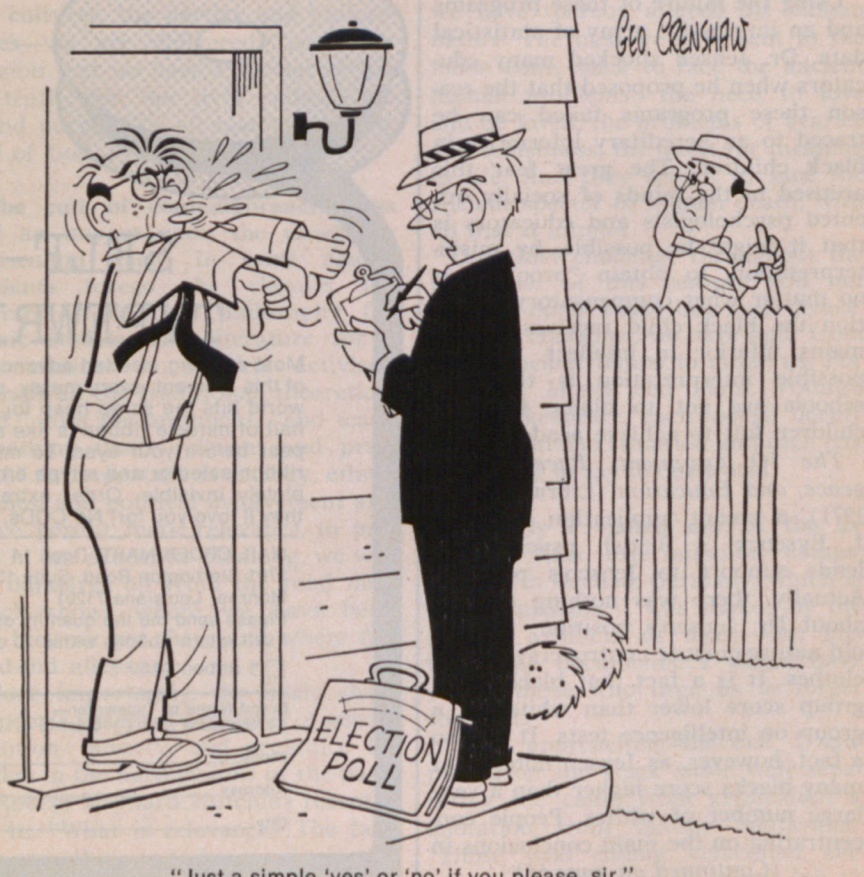
Black people as a group in America are poor, and poor people are subject to all kinds of health risks deriving from prenatal conditions and malnutrition. The relationship between poverty, health, and learning failure is now receiving the attention it deserves. It is becoming clear that not only does malnutrition play a role in retarded intellectual development but that more than one generation may have to be well-fed before all the effects of dietary deficiency are overcome.

Jensen was premature in evaluating just what portion of the black child's biological structure actually resides in the genes. It is difficult to evaluate the amount of damage caused by health hazards resulting from poverty, or to say how even slight changes in environment can produce large changes in behaviors, even where those behaviors are linked to genetics and biology.

Another criticism of the Jensen material is that the public does not have a clear appreciation of just what kinds of information can be validly drawn from hereditability data. The method used by Jensen and Eysenck can only tell what proportion heredity contributes to the variance of a specified trait in a given population under existing conditions. The data cannot tell us the reason for a given child's low intelligence, the origin of ethnic differences in test performance, or what educational intervention programs can accomplish.

Jensen's article should be credited with helping us recognize that compensatory programs of education in their beginning phases were inadequately structured. That he used these poorly planned programs as a basis for postulating hereditary inferiority in blacks is a major weakness. His

(*Continued on page* 68)



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(*Continued from page* 66)
reasoning could have proceeded the other way. If the programs failed to raise IQ scores, why place the onus on the black child's shoulders? Why not look at what's wrong with the programs?

A peculiar characteristic of American education is that, although we give lip service to meeting the needs of individual children, we seldom follow through with concrete actions. We meet the needs of individual children as long as they respond to the existing curriculum, but when a child fails to learn under the existing structure, we assume there is something wrong with him. If "meeting the needs of individual children" is to become meaningful, we should consider the possibility that perhaps a particular teaching method is all wrong for a particular child.

Certainly, we can't make wholesale prescriptions for black children as if they were all alike. A black child who is not doing well in school may be more like a white child who is similarly unsuccessful than he is like an achieving black child. The problem of understanding learning deficiencies and of locating appropriate pedagogy for overcoming them is not something we know too much about. The storm over the Jensen article may provide the impetus toward working for a true understanding of education and individual differences.

A first step might well be to define our aims and come to grips with why we test. Are we concerned with measuring the amount of cognitive ability an individual is born with, or do we wish to appraise, by sampling performance, the level of adaptive capacities at his disposal?

Do we seek to predict, by way of one or several tests, what an individual will do 20 years from now? Or do we seek to know how and at what stage educational circumstances might be arranged for the individual to achieve his highest level of intellectual functioning ability? Piaget, among others, has never been impressed with standard IQ tests because they do not lead to an understanding of how intelligence functions. His work is not based on predictions, but rather on assessments of the presence or absence of the essential abilities related to intellectual functioning.

Schools must decide what is the purpose of testing. If all we wish is to separate the bright child from the dull child, the brain-damaged from the neurologically intact, the retarded learner from the gifted, and to attach labels to the children in our schools, we can go on using tests the way we always have, and the argument over genes will continue. But if we mean what we say about meeting individual needs, we can put tests to better use.

The intelligence test, not the IQ score, can tell us the level of the child's functioning in a variety of tasks which measure general intelligence and which are intimately correlated with classroom learning. The goal of testing then becomes to describe the developmental level the child has attained. The next step requires that educators and psychologists together formulate the educational environment necessary to raise the child to the next developmental level. □

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Living Sounds

Since children have trouble with *er* and *ar* sounds, I keep two turtles named Er and Ar in my room. Whenever a child gets stuck over one of these sounds, I ask for the names of our turtles. This does the trick, and before long these sounds are no problem.

—Shirley LaMoria, *second grade teacher, Woodside School, Bay City, Michigan.*

Ecila, Please Come to My Desk

While I was a preprimary teacher, whenever a youngster reversed his letters or numerals, I gently summoned him to my desk to correct the errors by speaking his name in reverse. Thus, Mark became "Kram"; Kirk, "Krik"; Lori, "Irol."

The children got a big charge out of this and came forward willingly to make corrections. The procedure made me aware of how frequently a child made reversals. If a pupil continued to make reversals for more than a few months, I referred him for psychological testing to check out the possibility of perceptual problems.

—Betty O. Ellis, *director, Expanded Reading Program, Title I, New Bedford, Massachusetts.*

Sonnets

The sonnet is a good vehicle to use in helping children write their own lines as they stay within a structured framework.

I select a half dozen or so sonnets and write the first and last lines on the board, with space in between for the 12 middle lines.

We analyze the sonnet form. Then I read some sonnets aloud, and we discuss their meaning. After that, each pupil creates his own lines for those that are missing in one of the sonnets on the board.

The abandon with which the children throw themselves into this exercise is amazing. One boy exclaimed, "This was so much fun, I couldn't believe we were actually doing poetry!"

—Bob Jones, *sixth grade teacher, Ewell Elementary School, Utica, Michigan.*

Cinquains

I had my French III class write cinquains—five line poems. We decided to use the following pattern:

First line: one word—title
Second line: two words—describing title
Third line: three words—action associated with title
Fourth line: four words—emotion associated with title
Fifth line: one word—synonym for title.

The class had fun doing this, and I received some fine papers—some serious; some not, as these examples show:

École
Très importante
On apprend beaucoup
Les leçons sont intéressantes
Université
Moi
Très intelligent
Peux faire tout
Tout le monde m'aime
Beau

—Nathal R. Weston, *teacher of French, Dirigo High School, Dixfield, Maine.*

How To Remember the Inequality Signs

In arithmetic we pretend that the inequality sign is an alligator. The first day the sign is to be introduced, I read the children a story about an alligator and show them a picture of an alligator with its mouth open. Next I put the inequality signs *greater than* and *less than* on the board, explaining that we will pretend the signs are alligators with their mouths open wide.

I then explain that our pretend alligator only eats big things and that therefore the alligator will always open its mouth wide when it is about to eat the bigger-than or greater-than numeral.

For a follow-up lesson, I group the children into two unequal groups and have several children demonstrate the inequality sign with their arms.

Next I have a child write the number sentence on the board using the inequality sign.

(4>2; greater than) (2<4; less than)

Follow-up tests for this concept indicate 97 percent comprehension.

—Mary Wyatt, *second grade teacher, South Mesa School, Pueblo, Colorado.*

Picture Stories

For use during sharing time, we have a box marked *Picture Stories.* Near the beginning of the year I mount interesting pictures and put them in the box for the children to tell about.

Near the middle of the year, I cut up old reading-readiness books for four-, six-, and eight-picture stories. I put each set in a separate envelope after printing a title on the front.

Before the children place the pictures in the pocket chart to tell the story, they must put them in correct order. They rush to get their favorites before sharing begins. This activity is wonderful for language development. It helps teach sequence and left-to-right progression.

—Ruth Rippel, *kindergarten teacher, La Porte City (Iowa) Elementary School.*

When Words Stump Them

During silent reading, to avoid having any child who is stuck by a word sit idle until help arrives, I let the children use their short, lined white paper to record all unfamiliar words and any words that stump them. At the end of the lesson, the children come up one by one and print these words on the board. By the time we get to the last child, no new or hard words are left.

—Frances M. Gadsby, *fourth grade teacher, A. D. Healey School, Somerville, Massachusetts.*

Thank You, John Cabot

My students write letters to famous explorers thanking them for their contributions to the world.

This gives the students practice in letter writing and at the same time fixes in their minds important facts about the explorers of our country.

—Elizabeth H. Estes, *fifth grade teacher, Bransford Elementary School, Springfield, Tennessee.*

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Humanizing Student Services (#2). Spring 1972 *Journal of the National Association of Women Deans and Counselors.* 48 pp. $2. 596-17080. NAWDC.

Listening: From Sound to Meaning. (#3). Color filmstrip based on Booklet No. 29 in the series, *What Research Says to the Teacher.* Suggests many practical ways for teachers to improve their students' listening skills. Includes 33⅓ rpm record narration and guide and script. 15 min. $16. 387-11616. Association of Classroom Teachers.

Man-Made Moons: Satellite Communications for Schools (#4). Does "an excellent job of introducing the technology to the layman" . . . Neil Armstrong. Foreword by Sidney P. Marland. $3. 381-11994. NEA in cooperation with the Council on Educational Telecommunications and the National Center for Educational Technology (USOE).

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School Staffing Ratios: Guidelines in Literature, Statute, and Local Policy (#8). ERS Circular No. 3, 1972. Reproduces staffing ratios found in literature, state law, and local school system guidelines. Included in ERS subscription. 69 pp. $3. 219-21512. Educational Research Service.

Status of the American Public-School Teacher, 1970-71 (#9). Research Report 1972-R3. Gives data on all aspects of the teacher's professional and community life. 230 pp. $4. 435-25496. Research Division.

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UNDERSTANDING INTERGROUP RELATIONS. The following materials are based on Booklet No. 21 in the series, *What Research Says to the Teacher.* Describes the bases of people's attitudes toward their own and other groups and suggests ways to develop productive attitudes.

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